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ABSTRACT

DEVELOPMENT OF A TRAFFIC SAFETY INDEX FOR URBAN INTERSECTIONS

by Jae-Hong Kang

Conventional safety analysis focuses on the accident environment at specific locations or a limited segment of highways or arterials, and attempts to identify the effects of accident contributing factors. The development of a safety index in the past was based on a statistical summary for county or statewide areas, using general indicators such as population, number of registered vehicles, vehicle miles traveled and so on. This research effort presents a state-of-the-art procedural analytical approach for the safety analysis of Manhattan intersections that are exposed to a unique urban environment. The computed index provides safety ratings that can identify potential safety problems for Manhattan intersections, on the basis of accident frequency and severity. The analytical models correlate city or borough-wide averages with an individual intersection. A user-friendly software program is developed to compute a safety index rating to evaluate the relative hazardousness of city intersections. The computer program consists of a database module and an analysis module. The analysis module identifies locations with safety problems based on a composite factor which includes accident severity and accident frequency.

DEVELOPMENT OF A TRAFFIC SAFETY INDEX FOR URBAN INTERSECTIONS

by Jae-Hong Kang

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of New Jersey Institute of Technology in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

> Interdisciplinary Program in Transportation

> > May 1996

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This dissertation is dedicated to my mother

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This research effort has been funded through the State of New York Governor's Traffic Safety Committee by a 402 Federal Highway Safety Grant.

The author wishes to express his sincere appreciation to his supervisors, Dr. Athanassios K. Bladikas and Dr. Louis J. Pignataro, for their guidance, help, and moral support throughout this research.

Special thanks to Dr. Lazar N. Spasovic, Mr. Joel Friedman, P.E., and Dr. Kyriacos C. Mouskos for serving as members of the committee.

The author is grateful to Mr. Michael Graham for providing an innovative tool for data collection and processing. Special gratitude is owed to Mr. Seung-Won Chung for his active part in data reduction and computer programming. Additional thanks go to Mrs. Claudia Joseph and Mr. David Winters who helped with the final reproduction.

And finally, much thanks to Mr. Jack Knoll of the New York State Department of Transportation's Traffic Engineering and Safety for his help.

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GLOSSARY

DOT Department of Transportation

FARS Fatal Accident Reporting System

VMT Vehicle Miles Traveled

NYCDOT New York City Department of Transportation

CASIUS Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets

PDO Property Damage Only

LSD Logarithmic Series Distribution

AHI Accident Hazard Index

PAI Population Average Index

VAI Vehicles Average Index

MAI Mileage Average Index

IEI Improvement Emphasis Index

TCT Traffic Conflicts Technique

CSI Corridor Safety Index

GLOSSARY (Continued)

MEV Million Entering Vehicles

AAA American Automobile Association

PV Pedestrian-Vehicle

PHI Pedestrian Hazard Index

NSC National Safety Council

NHTSA National Highway Traffic Safety Administration

MAIS Maximum Abbreviated Injury Scale

WTP Willingness To Pay

NCSS National Crash Severity Study

NASS National Accident Sampling System

HC Human Capital

FHWA Federal Highway Administration

NYSDOT New York State Department of Transportation

CLASS Centralized Local Accident Surveillance System GLOSSARY (Continued)

TVV Total Vehicle Volume

SCV Sum of Critical Volume

CVV Critical Vehicle Volume

EPDO Equivalent Property Damage Only

DMV Department of Motor Vehicles

HISAM Highway Safety Analysis and Monitoring

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Historical Perspective

The history of traffic safety shares its origins with the automobiles. The nineteenth century witnessed the development of various types of transportation modes. Early in the century, comparatively slow-moving automobiles appeared with characteristics similar to those of horse-drawn carriages competing with each other on narrow streets in the industrialized urban environment. As automobiles started playing a major role in the transportation field, the roadway system was expanded and brought under mechanical traffic signal control to improve traffic safety and roadway efficiency. Accidents are an unwanted by-product of the automobile, shadowing its many conveniences. Since the advent of the automobile age, traffic accidents have become more frequent and severe. Speeding vehicles and the construction of a highway system since the days of urban sprawl in the 1960's resulted in a tremendous societal cost in terms of personal loss and property damage. After the oil embargo in the 1970's, there was a trend to reduce the average size of private motor vehicles to conserve energy and reduce air pollution. Although the argument of whether the smaller vehicles are less safe than larger ones has not been clearly settled, it is true that the size of commercial vehicles has been increasing as trucks try to compete with the railroads and become more efficient.

According to the U.S. Department of Transportation's (DOT) Fatal Accident Reporting System (FARS), 54,724 motor vehicles were involved in 36,895 fatal crashes in 1991, resulting in 41,462 deaths. Of these, 75 percent involved drivers or occupants of vehicles, and 14 percent involved pedestrians. Nationally, traffic fatalities have been declining since 1988. The fatality rate per 100 million Vehicle Miles Traveled (VMT) for 1991 was estimated at 1.9, the lowest in U. S. history, and 42 percent lower than that of 1980. This positive change is more encouraging if one considers the continuing growth of registered vehicles and licensed drivers. More vehicle crashes occur in urban than rural areas, but more motor vehicle deaths occur on rural than on urban roads (Institute for Highway Safety, 1992).

In 1991, 1,807 fatal accidents were reported out of 274,875 total accidents in New York State. In New York City during the same period, 546 fatal accidents were reported out of 105,266 accidents, accounting for 38 percent of the total State fatalities (New York State Department of Motor Vehicles, 1991). For the same year, the New York City Department of Transportation's (NYCDOT) fatality database shows 609 deaths out of 574 fatal crashes.

1.2 Problem Identification

Currently, locations perceived as dangerous in New York City are submitted for study by community, political and civic groups, and the mass media. Many traffic engineers and decision-makers in local government use the number of traffic fatals, or severe injuries, as the sole barometer with which to compare the safety performance of specific segments of limited access highways, arterials, and local streets. This type of approach may result in subjective or misleading conclusions because the sample size per location is generally too small to draw effective conclusions.

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From the area-wide perspective, however, most municipalities would have difficulty in obtaining and processing an accident database which includes all types of incidents, information on geometric characteristics and traffic parameters, and the other numerous factors contributing to traffic incidents in the subject area. New York City, for example, has approximately 38,000 intersections. The signalized intersections in most urbanized areas are exposed to generally higher vehicular and pedestrian traffic.

1.3 Purpose and Objective

Accident statistics are very important in traffic safety. They allow identification of locations for potential improvements in the areas of engineering countermeasures, public education, and enforcement. Reliable databases and complete analyses allow for a more effective allocation of limited resources. A comprehensive safety index which reflects the traffic elements and contributing factors to accidents in a study area can be used as a toolbox to implement countermeasures, as well as a planning tool for improving unsafe locations.

The approach taken in this dissertation is unique because it develops an area-wide safety index for an urban municipality. The City of New York is the biggest city in the United States, and the Borough of Manhattan, as one of the most congested urban cores in the country, has been selected for the case study. The island of Manhattan represented New York City, until the City annexed its peripheral districts during the Great Congregation in 1898. At present, 1.5 million people are estimated to reside on the 15,170 acres of the island. About 73 percent of the 3,695 intersections in Manhattan are signalized and one-third of the total citywide pedestrian accidents take place in Manhattan.

The primary objective is to develop a methodology to identify urban intersections with accident rates significantly higher than the areawide average for locations with similar traffic environments. Using this type of study will allow traffic engineers of different municipalities to: 1) prioritize safety problems by location, and 2) cope with community and political pressures in a productive way. Other by-products of this effort include a simple reference guide of accident frequency and severity by intersection and designation of target locations for safety planning, a user-friendly software program called CASIUS (Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets), an increase of the public's awareness about traffic safety, and the transferability of the methodology to other cities in the United States.

In the past, conventional safety analysis focused on the accident environment at specific locations or limited segments of arterials. For limited-access highways, accident rates were simply calculated using more general and static accident surrogates, such as vehicle-miles-traveled (VMT). For county/statewide areas, safety indices are usually based on some aggregate statistic, e.g., population, registrations, mileage, etc.

This dissertation evaluates Manhattan intersections that are exposed to the uniqueness of the urban environment, and the intersection variables reviewed are correlated with the summary for all Manhattan accidents. The developed index can provide its end-users with safety ratings for Manhattan intersections, in terms of accident frequency and severity. Furthermore, candidate intersections for further investigation of potential safety problems can be rated on a scale from 0 to 10.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Objective of Literature Review

The literature review presented here covers the three major areas of safety evaluation methods, pedestrian safety, and accident cost.

The safety evaluation method section covers comprehensive studies measuring safety performance, including an existing safety index study using less comprehensive accident parameters than those included in this dissertation. The key words used to search this area were: (intersections) accidents, traffic/hazards/near miss/accident, incident/safety management/urban accidents, traffic/accident rates/accident traffic, guidelines/accidents, traffic prevention/accidents traffic risks.

Pedestrians play a vital role in traffic accidents in urban areas because pedestrian fatalities are predominantly an urban problem. In 1990, pedestrian-involved injury/fatal accidents comprised about 17 percent of total police-reported accidents in New York City. The key words used to search this areas were: (pedestrian) accident/characteristics/counter measures/safety program/programs/protection.

Accident cost and economic analysis review can be used to develop a multiplication factor which can be used to convert fatal and injury accidents to equivalent property damage only (PDO) accidents. The key words used to search this area were (traffic) accident cost.

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The literature search for each area was conducted manually and through a National Safety Council (NSC) library database search of pertinent highway safety related literature published from 1965 to the present. The primary findings of the literature review are discussed below.

2.2 Safety Evaluation Methods

Khisty (1990) listed the following seven procedures, which vary in complexity and data needs, and can be used to identify hazardous spots, sections, and elements based on accident, traffic, and highway data.

o frequency method
o accident rate method
o frequency-rate method
o rate quality control method
o accident severity method
o hazard index method
o hazardous roadway features inventory

2.2.1 Frequency Method

The frequency method is used to identify and rank locations on the basis of the number of accidents. Andreassen and Hoque (1992) conducted a study to examine the distribution of "collisions between vehicles from adjacent approaches" accidents per intersection for a six year period (1973-1978) in Metropolitan Melbourne, Australia.

The study concluded that the use of aggregated accident data was inappropriate, since countermeasures usually do not have the same input on different accident types. Some accident types may be increased while others may be decreased by a countermeasure, and the distribution of the frequencies of the various accident types should be studied separately rather than by looking only at the distribution of the aggregated accidents. The negative binomial distribution did not fit the data well; however, the study indicated that a logarithmic series distribution (LSD) was found to adequately describe the observed data of intersection frequencies for the network as a whole, for the four functional road classes and for the subdivision of intersections within each road class.

2.2.2 Accident Rate Method

The accident rate method combines accident frequency with vehicle exposure. California's Office of Traffic Safety introduced an accident rate concept in 1976 based on the number of fatal and injury accidents per 1,000 population. California's accident rate method has the disadvantage of not considering other factors such as the number of registered vehicles, mileage of paved highways, and vehicle-miles traveled.

Lalani and Walker (1981) developed a correlation between accident frequency and average daily volume in 1981 for signalized intersections and urban arterial street segments. No correlation was found between accidents and volume at unsignalized intersections. Jadaan and Nicholson (1983) conducted a statistical analysis in 1983 of data relating to accidents, traffic flows and road type in the vicinity of the Christchurch Southern Arterial in New Zealand. Their study indicates that the analysis of accident, traffic volume, roadway and land-use data for urban road links resulted in statistically significant relationships between the number of accidents and amount of travel, for certain combinations of roadway and land-use types. Nicholson (1985) also analyzed accident data for Auckland intersections in New Zealand, and found a considerable variation which was inconsistent with the "Poisson assumption".

2.2.3 Frequency-Rate Method

Shen (1982) developed a general index to measure highway safety performance in South Carolina. An Accident Hazard Index (AHI) was used to identify counties with serious highway safety problems through comparison of county accident rate indices based on Population (PAI), Registered Vehicles (VAI) and Paved Highway Mileage (MAI).

The Improvement Emphasis Index (IEI) supplements the AHI by incorporating more information about accidents, therefore enabling it to pinpoint the specific problem areas that were responsible for poor safety performance. Speed, pedestrian, youthful driver, alcohol, truck, driver violation, school bus, roadway and roadside hazards, passenger car, motorcycle, and bicycle accident involvements were selected as the 11 parameters to use in constructing the IEI.

2.2.4 Kansas City Study

Bhesania (1991) summarized the accident statistics and characteristics observed in Kansas City in 1991. Signalized locations experienced the largest number of accidents when compared with other forms of traffic control. The average number of accidents per year occurring at signalized intersections was 9.6 compared with an average of about 2 per year at stop-sign or yield-sign controlled locations. Intersections without any control experienced only 1.3 accidents per year. However, uncontrolled intersections normally carry very small volumes of traffic.

The study also revealed that the most frequent type of collision at all intersections was the right-angle accident (43%) followed by the rear-end (24%) and the left-turn (14%) accident. Stop-sign-controlled intersections experienced a larger percentage of right-angle accidents and a smaller percentage of rear-end accidents when compared with intersections controlled by signals. The Kansas City intersections controlled by yield signs experienced the largest percentage of right-angle accidents. A cross-classification of accident severity and traffic control indicates that accident severity is not influenced by the type of traffic control. Injuries are found to be least likely in rear-end and side-swipe collisions. The probability of being injured in these types of accidents is at least 50 percent less than in right-angle or left-turn accidents.

The most frequent type of midblock accident in Kansas City was the rear-end type (25.9%), followed by side-swipe (18.6%) and accidents involving parked cars (17.9%). Pedestrian accidents make up 2 percent of the total collisions. The largest number of pedestrian accidents occurred in the 3 p.m. to 6 p.m. period. Children 5 to 11 years old were involved in 20 percent of the collisions.

2.2.5 Hazardous Roadway Features Inventory

Blakstad (1989) conducted two studies of accident rates in 1976-77 and 1989 on Norwegian road sections and junctions. The studies show that main roads with a high design standard

have lower accident rates than collector roads and much lower rates than access roads; accident rates in suburban areas are lower than in urban areas (i.e. city centers); 3-way intersections perform far better than 4-ways; round-abouts are the best type of junction from a traffic safety point of view; low speed limits and pedestrian facilities have a positive effect on road safety, but they can not remove the impact of poor road and environmental standards.

Poppe (1988) conducted research at 1,643 intersections in 19 different cities in the Netherlands comparing accident history with intersection geometry, traffic volume, and the priority control at the intersection. Poppe's study concludes that intersections in built-up areas cannot be categorized into groups on the basis of intersection geometry or traffic volume. In addition, the accidents happening in those intersections display a great variation on vehicle type and maneuvers, among other factors.

2.2.6 Traffic Conflicts Technique (TCT)

Glauz et al (1985) established relationships between traffic conflicts and accidents at 46 signalized and unsignalized intersections in Kansas City in 1982. The study concludes that accident/conflict ratios can be applied to comparable intersections to obtain an expected accident rate of a specific type.

$$A_0 = C_0 R \tag{2.2}$$

$$Var(A_0) = Var(C)Var(R) + C_0^2 Var(R) + R^2 Var(C)$$
(2.3)

where:

 $A_0 =$ expected number of accidents,

 C_0 = expected conflict rate obtained from the field study at the intersection,

R = estimate of the accident/conflict ratio for that class of intersections

Traffic conflicts of certain types were found to be good surrogates of accidents, and the TCT study is helpful especially when there is insufficient accident data to produce an estimate.

Brown (1981) studied the feasibility of predicting the accident potential at an intersection by the application of a model based on accident occurrences at individual conflict points within a four-legged intersection with two-way flow on each leg and controlled by traffic signals. Unlike prior studies of its kind, the study was to assess and predict the effect on safety performance of proposed road changes both from the point of view of the type of intersection and the volume and pattern of traffic movements at that intersection.

2.2.7 Accident Severity Method

Accident severities are classified by the National Safety Council and many states, within the following categories: (Khisty, 1990)

Fatal accident: one or more deaths (F)
A-type injury: incapacitating accident (A)
B-type injury: nonincapacitating accident (B)
C-type injury: probable injury (C)
PDO: property damage only (PDO)

Locations are ranked based on their computed EPDO (equivalent property damage only) number.

$$EPDO = 9.5(F + A) + 3.5(B + C) + PDO$$
(2.4)

Funawatashi (1987) supplemented the conventional accident rate method by separating injury/fatal accidents from the total accident rate. Total accident rate R_t is total accident frequency divided by standard variables such as hourly volume (V).

$$R_{t} = \frac{A_{t}}{V} = \frac{A_{i} + A_{p}}{V}$$
(2.5)

Where A_i is injury accidents, A_p is property damage only, and A_t indicates total accident frequency.

The proposed simple index contrasts PDO type accidents with injury type accidents.

$$I = \frac{A_p}{A_i}$$
(2.6)

2.2.8 Hazard Index Method

Taylor and Thomson, (1977) totaled partial hazard indices to obtain a hazard index for a particular location. Hazard factors from the raw data can be converted to an indicator value, and then multiplied by a weighing factor. Funawatashi (1987) developed an intersection safety analysis based on roadway width. Supposedly, the size of entering vehicles to the intersection has a close relationship with the number of accidents. Likewise the width of the intersection can be used as a replica of traffic volume and of expected accident frequency. However, the district with more arterials and larger roadway widths (W1 + W3) had a lower accident rate.

Chang (1982) presented an overview of exposure measures for evaluating safety at signalized intersections and comparing unsignalized with signalized intersections. He

suggested that the number of accidents is the square of the exposure measure that prevails in the highway-traffic-environment system. Unsignalized intersections and signalized intersections present different risks for different accident types. Holland (1967) added overall conflict zones within a four-leg intersection and derived the basic equation below for a range of volumes and turning flows.

$$E = KV_1^{a}V_2^{b}$$
(2.7)

where:

E = accident exposure per time unit,

V1, V2 = hourly aggregate major and minor traffic volume, and

K, a, b, = constants.

Chang assumed that different conflicting maneuvers have different accident risks. For example, crossing maneuvers at intersections may have a greater accident risk than other conflicting maneuvers and can be included in the equation in a product form while others may be included in summation form. At signalized intersections, the magnitude of accident risk depends not only on conflicting traffic volumes but also on site parameters such as signal phases, cycle length, splits, lens size, signal mountings, and the types of signal actuation. Many factors were recommended to be incorporated to distinguish varying accident experiences at signalized intersections.

Terhune and Parker (1986) tested isolated horizontal curves and unsignalized intersections on 2-lane New York state highways. Curve equations were developed from western New York.

Total accidents per 10⁶ vehicles

$$= [0.15 + 0.000026 \text{ (degree of curvature x AADT)}]^2$$
(2.8)
Among the surrogate variables, the degree of curvature and traffic volume were found to be the best curves, while major and minor road traffic volume, minor road average stopped delay, and percent left turns were the best predictor variables for intersections. The maximum variance in accident rates accounted for was 31 percent.

2.2.9 New York's Rate Quality Control Method

Recently, the New York State Department of Transportation (1991) formulated a corridor safety index to identify 31 limited access corridors within New York City with higher than statewide average accident rates for highway facilities.

of Corridor Accidents
Accident Rate =
$$\dots x \ 10^6$$
 (2.9)
Cor. Length(Miles) x AADT x 365

The calculated accident rate for each corridor was compared to the Statewide accident rate for similar roadways. The Corridor Safety Index (CSI) was computed.

$$Accident Rate AADT$$

$$CSI = ------ - 1 + 0.25 \times ------$$

$$State Accident Rate 100,000$$
(2.10)

For intersections, New York State DOT uses Mean Rate Book for intersections where volume data exist. There are 40 different intersection classes by intersection type, intersection control, and the existence of a left turn bay. Calculated mean rate includes all accidents per million entering vehicles (MEV), pedestrian accidents per intersection, and non-pedestrian accidents per intersection. However, this study covers intersections adjacent to state highways that are not in NYSDOT's region 11 (New York City area).

2.2.10 Summary

It is evident from this literature review that there have been numerous studies done based on regional traffic safety indices and on safety evaluation methods for locations. However, there have been few studies found that analyze the urban traffic environment and evaluate traffic safety in the core area of a city. Hence, the purpose of this study is to investigate contributing factors to traffic conflicts in the Manhattan area and eventually to create a comprehensive safety index to reflect New York City intersections.

2.3 Pedestrian Safety

The problem of pedestrian accidents is primarily an urban one, with approximately 83 percent of all pedestrian accidents and 74 percent of all pedestrian fatalities in the United States in 1985 occurring in urban areas (Lalani, 1992). In New York City, on the average 314 pedestrians were killed and 14,781 injured by automobiles annually during the three year period of 1989-1991. Over the past decade, pedestrian deaths comprised more than 50 percent of all traffic-related fatalities in New York City. Twenty nine percent of the citywide total pedestrian accidents took place in Manhattan, although Manhattan's population accounts for only 20 percent of the City's total population. The higher percentage of pedestrian accidents might be explained by the population and employment density of the area.

2.3.1 Pedestrian Characteristics

Pedestrian actions are less predictable and controllable than those of drivers. Pedestrians are vulnerable in a collision with a motor vehicle because of the vehicle's greater mass and higher speed. In terms of age, pedestrian accidents are most over-represented among the

young and older adult pedestrians. Based on accident data from more than 1,900 cities, the American Automobile Association (AAA) found that children between the ages of 2 and 14 (particularly ages 5 and 6) were over-represented in pedestrian-accident involvement based on their population. Numerous studies (Pfefer et al, 1982, NYCDOT, 1992) have found that persons older than 55 years of age are also over-represented in pedestrian fatalities for the most part because of the greater accident severity to pedestrians in that older age group.

Drinking contributes to pedestrian accidents. Two percent of the total pedestrian accidents in Manhattan (or Statewide) during 1990 were alcohol related. For the same year in New York City, alcohol and other drugs were detected in thirty two percent of pedestrian fatals. The intoxicated pedestrian represents just as great a hazard to himself as to others. Another significant factor relating to pedestrian safety would be pedestrian traffic law violations.

2.3.2 Pedestrian Fatals in Virginia

Worthington (1991) examined 216 accident reports of fatal pedestrian crashes occurring in an urban area of Virginia during 1985-1987. The study sponsored by Virginia DOT concluded that negligent pedestrian behavior contributed to urban pedestrian fatalities more than factors related to driver behavior, the roadway and environment at the crash site, or the vehicle itself. Alcohol use by the pedestrian was also found to be a major factor.

Similar to most research in this type, high-risk periods are reported to be the end of the week and weekends, late afternoon to late evening, and darkness. Elderly pedestrians have greater difficulty negotiating complex situations and are more likely than younger persons to be fatally injured when struck by a vehicle.

2.3.3 Pedestrian Accidents in the Montreal CBD

Seneviratne and Shuster (1989) reviewed pedestrian accidents in the Montreal Central Business District between 1985 and 1987. Over 40 percent of the accidents occurred during the 12-6 PM period and 80 percent of the accidents within commercial land use areas.

Accidents were classified into four general types according to the direction of travel of the vehicle. These included a)"direct hits," or conflicts that occurred when a pedestrian crossing a street was hit by a vehicle moving straight through; b)"left-turn hits", c)"right-turn hits," and d)"reverse hits," or vehicles backing up from parking spots and driveways. "Direct hits" by a vehicle moving straight through are the major direction of vehicular movements (70%) compared to the portion of accidents that occurred while a vehicle was turning. The study also hypothesized that intersections with pedestrian signals are more hazardous than those without them, considering the ratio of the number of accidents to the number of sites in each category.

2.3.4 Urban and Rural Environments

Mueller et al (1988) compared the pedestrian-vehicle collision injury and fatality rates for urban and rural areas of Washington State from 1981 through 1983. According to their study, rates of `injuries' are higher in urban areas, even though the pedestrian `fatality' rate in rural areas is higher for nearly all age groups, and at all posted speeds. Faster posted vehicle speeds were noted in the study, but they did not account entirely for the difference seen. The authors assume that slower rapid Emergency Medical Service care contributes to the fact, and accessibility to trauma centers is more limited in rural areas.

2.3.5 Pedestrian Exposure Measures

Knoblauch et al (1984) developed pedestrian exposure measures based on specific pedestrian trip-making characteristics, and examined the exposure measures relative to accident information to determine the relative hazardousness of various pedestrian characteristics and behaviors. Exposure measures have been used to define high-risk locations for pedestrians. Exposure can be seen as the product of pedestrian volume (P) and vehicle volume (V), P x V, since pedestrian accident risk cannot occur where both pedestrian and vehicle volumes do not exist. Turning volumes, type of traffic control or violations that produce conflicts were also introduced into the pedestrian/vehicle volume (P x V) concept. Relative hazardousness was determined by comparing the exposure data with pedestrian accident data. Hazard scores were developed to analyze the relationship between the occurrence of certain factors in the accident population and their occurrence in the general population at risk. The hazard scores are the ratio created by dividing the percentage of occurrence of a characteristic in either the accident population or the exposure population by the percentage of occurrence in the other population. If the accident population had the larger percentage--an indication that more hazard is associated with the characteristic -- the hazard score is presented as a positive number. If the exposure population had the larger percentage, the hazard score is presented as a negative number--an indication that less hazard is associated with the characteristic. Three types of hazard scores were examined in this study: site, pedestrian volume, and pedestrian-vehicle interactions (PV).

A study on a stratified random sample of 495 sites in five randomly selected cities indicates that the majority of the pedestrian-vehicle (PV) exposure occurs in commercial (71.8%) and mixed residential (21.6%) areas. Only 6.6 percent of the exposure occurs in

areas classified as 100 percent residential. The pedestrian-vehicle (PV) score for the roadway functional classification variable indicates that both major arterials and local streets are relatively hazardous. Also shown in the report is that the traditional afternoon peak in pedestrian accidents follows a similar peak in the PV exposure measure plot. According to the study, the periods of darkness, after 8:00 p.m., represent the greatest relative hazard for pedestrians.

2.3.6 Pedestrian Crossings

Zaidel and Hocherman (1989) analyzed the accidents that occurred between 1977 and 1982 at 520 signalized intersections in Tel Aviv, Jerusalem, and Haifa. Table 2.1 shows the distribution of pedestrian accidents by direction of vehicle movement as reported in several U.S. studies and in Israel. The proportion of accidents related to turning (both left and right) in the U.S. studies and in Israel is between 30 and 45 percent. According to the U.S. data, left-turn maneuvers are generally more hazardous for pedestrians than right-turn maneuvers.

Percenta	age of Accid	lents by Vehicle 1	Direction		
Study I	Left Turn	<u>Right Turn</u> <u>Straigh</u>		No. of Acc.	No. of Int.
[U.S.]		-	·		
Fruin (1973) ¹	31	14	55	172	32
Habib (1984) ²	25	13	62	455	45
Zegeer (1984) ³	22	15	63	2,081	1,297
Robertson (198-	4) ^₄ 17	12	71	202	62*
[Israel]	13	17	70	850	520

 Table 2.1 Pedestrian Accidents at Signalized Intersections

^{1,2} One-way grid intersections, Manhattan

³ Fifteen cities

⁴ Washington, D.C., area

* Of which 54 were signalized

Considering that turning vehicles are approximately 15 to 25 percent of the traffic volume approaching an intersection, the hazard associated with turning vehicles is higher than that for those going straight ahead. Nwankwor (1978) analyzed pedestrian safety at crosswalks of Manhattan's one-way grid. Left-turn accidents were about twice those associated with right-turn movements. Pedestrian direction is also significant for left-turn accidents, in a ratio of 65 to 46, or 40 percent higher for pedestrians starting from the near side of the crosswalk. From the analysis, Nwankwor also observed human characteristics which are unique to Manhattan, such as the hurried nature of New York City taxi drivers. Vehicles more often come into conflict with pedestrians while reacting too quickly to traffic light changes, and pedestrians are equally guilty of prematurely reacting when they walk into the crosswalk as soon as the walk signal changes while the vehicle has not cleared the crosswalk.

Knoblauch et al (1984) reported a lower hazard index for intersections equipped with pedestrian signals compared with intersections without. However, the report concludes that pedestrian accidents were more influenced by the factors of vehicle volume, pedestrian activity, and intersection complexity, and the various crossing types--uncontrolled, or with a pedestrian crossing phase--had little effect on the number of pedestrian accidents, and no effect on the number of vehicle collisions.

2.3.7 Intersection Ranking Methodology

Robertson and Carter (1988) developed a method of constructing a pedestrian hazard index (PHI) using the hazard indicators; number of pedestrian accidents, pedestrian accident rate, proportion of special pedestrian groups crossing (young, old, or disabled), noncompliance with the signal, and pedestrian/vehicle conflicts. Three combinations of pedestrian and vehicle volumes were selected; vehicle volume divided by pedestrian volume, vehicle volume multiplied by pedestrian volume, and vehicle volume multiplied by pedestrian volume, and vehicle volume multiplied by pedestrian volume.

The calculation of the correlation coefficient (r) for pedestrian accident frequency versus each of the candidate exposure measures indicated that none of the correlations were particularly strong. However, the coefficients of determination (r^2) were considerably higher for intersections with pedestrian signals. The coefficients of determination for "vehicle volume times pedestrian volume" and "vehicle volume times pedestrian volume divided by percentage turns" were consistently higher than those for pedestrian or vehicle volume alone. Based on limited data, accident rates were computed for each of the 47 intersections:

$$AF \times 10^{7} AR = ----- \times T$$
P x V
(2.11)

Where

AR = pedestrian accident rate;

AF = three-year pedestrian accident frequency;

P = pedestrian volume (10-hr period);

V = vehicle volume (10-hr period); and

T = percentage turning vehicles (10-hr period).

The raw accident data were converted from each hazard indicator into a hazard value, ranging from 0 to 100. The final step was to assign weights to each hazard indicator value to produce a pedestrian hazard index for each intersection. Overall, the method seems logical and practical in rating intersections with respect to pedestrian safety. The authors recommended future research should explore other hazard indicators, such as accident severity, for possible inclusion in the index.

2.3.8 Application of Traffic Conflicts Technique (TCT)

Javid and Seneviratne (1991) applied their conflict technique to pedestrian safety evaluation. The study concluded that the expected conflicts can be estimated with a reasonable degree of certainty from a few measurable variables, such as traffic volume and clearance time.

Left turn conflicts
$$LC = 2.7 - 0.09 CT + 23.3 (p x Q_L)$$
 (2.12)

Right turn conflicts
$$RC = 0.22 + 30.1 (p - Q_R) + 0.12 CT$$
 (2.13)

Total number of conflicts $C = 6.2 + 3.81 (P \times Q) - 0.096 \text{ ACT}$ (2.14)

Where:

LC = Left-turn conflicts, per hour

CT = Clearance time, in seconds

- p = Pedestrian crossings, in thousands per hour
- Q_L = Vehicles turning left, in thousands per hour
- RC = Right-turn conflicts, per hour
- Q_R = Vehicles turning right, in thousands per hour

C = Total conflicts, per hour

Q = Total hourly approach volume, in thousands

P = Total hourly pedestrian volume crossing all legs, in

thousands

ACT = Average clearance time considering all approaches, in seconds

Since accident rates are variable over time, the approach used a nonhomogeneous Poisson process to estimate the critical number of accidents that would occur with a certain predetermined degree of confidence. The deficiencies in this approach, however, are the unknown validity of the conflict estimation models over time and space. Secondly, establishing the threshold or critical level of confidence (significance) for identifying sites with a high accident potential is arbitrary.

Davis et al (1989) conducted a study to determine the relationship between pedestrian/vehicle conflicts and accidents to develop a reliable model to predict the occurrence of pedestrian accidents. Accident group models were developed using discriminate analysis for the cities of Washington, D.C., and Seattle. The intersection samples were divided into three groups on the basis of pedestrian accident frequency in three years, and subdivided into two subgroups with respect to type of control: Group1, zeroaccident intersections; Group2, one- and two-accident intersections; and Group3, three-ormore-accident intersections. Authors found that the variables of pedestrian and vehicle volumes, conflicts, type of control, and pedestrian violations were best explained in group 3, in Washington, D.C., with a model accuracy of 83 percent.

group1:
$$G1 = -0.0829C + 0.0041P + 0.0026V + 3.4671S$$

+ 0.0222 Vp - 3.3074 (2.15)

group3: G3 = -0.0989C + 0.0045P + 0.0037V + 4.8675S

group2: G2 = -0.0099C + 0.0006P + 0.0016V - 1.0553S

Where:

C = conflict P = pedestrian volume V = vehicle volume S = type of control (1-signal, 0-stop) Vp = pedestrian violations

The study explains the differences in pedestrian behavior between the two cities in terms of pedestrian violations. In Washington, D.C., where numerous pedestrian violations occurred, the violations were found to be indicators of accident groupings; however, in Seattle, the opposite was true. The authors also found that vehicle violations were not useful in defining accident groupings. In their research, vehicle violations of running a red signal or stopping in the crosswalk did not endanger a pedestrian when the pedestrian signal indicated "Don't Walk" and pedestrians complied.

2.3.9 Summary

The literature review indicated that most pedestrian studies focus on the analysis of data such as pedestrian characteristics or accident environments. While the many reports reviewed were limited to pedestrian accidents with fatals or severe injuries, there has been little work done to establish a comprehensive safety index which includes accident severity and incident parameters. The concept of hazard index theory has been discussed, but no study was found that correlates a pedestrian trip generation study with pedestrian exposure to enable traffic engineers to use it as a quick reference without a field count. The studies are also focused on road and vehicle factors rather than human factors. There were few studies found which included urban pedestrian factors. Nwankwor, however, observed the hurried nature of New York City drivers and pedestrians. Vehicle violations would be more critical to pedestrian safety than various crossing types, in an urban core like New York City. Since New York City has a high frequency of pedestrian accidents, the Traffic Conflict Technique (TCT) may have to be adjusted for urban intersections.

2.4 Accident Cost

Motor vehicle accident costs are an important component in benefit-cost evaluations of highway safety improvements. However, the costs of injuries and property damage resulting from traffic accidents are often hard to estimate and easily misinterpreted.

The first accident cost study was conducted in 1953 in Massachusetts. By means of mail questionnaires and through personal interviews with a sample of vehicle owners, the accident experience for one year was obtained. From these data the direct cost of accidents was estimated. The Washington Area Motor Vehicle Accident Cost Study in 1964-65 was the first comprehensive study of traffic accident costs to concentrate on a predominantly urban area.

Much of the literature reviewed is too outdated to represent current prices, and difficulties exist in estimating accident costs. Variables in cost estimation derive from geographic differences, such as rural and urban, or whether they are viewed as incident-based or per vehicle of involvement. Various cost components, such as direct costs and indirect costs, are other parameters which make a uniform scaled cost evaluation difficult.

2.4.1 National Safety Council (NSC) Study

The National Safety Council has attempted to put a price on losses due to motor vehicle accidents. The NSC accident cost data includes wage loss, medical expense, insurance administration costs, and property damage. In 1990, the cost of each death, injury, or property damage accident were:

Death (fatalities)--\$410,000

Nonfatal Disabling Injury --\$17,400

Property Damage Accident--\$3,500 (including minor injuries)

The NSC data applies different ratios of nonfatal injuries and property damage accidents per death. The cost per death for all accidents--fatal, nonfatal, and property damage--differs for urban and rural accidents. The cost of a fatal accident including injuries and property damage would be \$3,100,000 for urban areas and \$1,100,000 for rural areas. Many cities and states do not keep complete injury and property damage accident records. If a city's records are believed incomplete, the National Safety Council recommends to use the \$3,100,000 unit cost per death. Motor vehicle injuries are classified by severity: \$38,200 for incapacitating injury, \$8,900 for nonincapacitating evident injury, and \$2,900 for possible injury.

Peszek (1973) developed a "price tag" on the annual losses due to motor vehicle accidents, by comparing the National Safety Council's (NSC) estimate with that of the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA). The price tag is the amount of money that could be saved by society if motor vehicle accident losses were to cease.

The Department of Transportation's NHTSA estimated \$46 billion as the loss in 1971, whereas The National Safety Council's estimate for the same year was \$15.8 billion.

2.4.2 National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) Study

NHTSA attempts to measure the total societal costs of motor vehicle accidents and translates all inconvenience and hardship associated with motor vehicle accidents. As shown in Table 2.2, The NHTSA estimate includes dollar allowances for intangibles such as pain and suffering; community loss of the services of a killed or disabled person; and the loss of the value of the casualty victim's household duties. NSC, on the other hand, attempts to measure the real dollars lost as the result of motor vehicle accidents.

TOTAL COST (in millions)	<u>UNIT COST</u>
PDO* 35,597	PDO (per vehicle) 1,481
Nonfatal Injury 70,613	MAIS 0: 1,238
	MAIS 1: 6,145
	MAIS 2: 26,807
	MAIS 3: 84,189
	MAIS 4: 158,531
	MAIS 5: 589,055
Fatal 31,273	Fatal (per person) 702,281

 Table 2.2 National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA)

 Accident Cost Data 1990

*PDO: Property Damage Only

The principal shortcoming of the study is its failure to express accident costs in a form that can be directly used with state accident data, with injury severities coded by the A-B-C scale (incapacitating, nonincapacitating, and possible injury, respectively) rather than by the Maximum Abbreviated Injury Scale (MAIS: 0, no injury; 1 to 5, least to most severe nonfatal injury; 6, fatality). NHTSA's accident cost for a fatality is almost double the fatality

accident cost estimate of the NSC. Since the 1970's, this difference has become smaller. The property damage accident cost is higher in the NSC estimate because it includes minor injuries. As a result, a multiplication factor between PDO and fatal accidents is much higher in NHTSA's estimate in comparison with that of the NSC.

2.4.3 The Costs of Motor Vehicle Injuries

The costs of injury to society are enormous. Faigin's (1991) technical paper reviewed a report to Congress, "Cost of Injury in the United States" (October 1989), to focus on the findings for motor vehicle injuries. The total lifetime cost of injury from all causes was \$158 billion in 1985, with motor vehicle injuries--the single most costly category of injury-- accounting for nearly \$49 billion.

The author explains that an incidence-based "human capital" methodology estimates the costs of injury, in terms of lifetime economic costs of fatalities and injuries occurring in a given year. Direct costs include first- and later-year medical costs, emergency services, nursing home care, rehabilitation, home modifications, and insurance administration expenses. Indirect costs result from losses in present and future productivity due to death (mortality), and permanent or temporary disability (morbidity).

Nonetheless, economic costs derived from the human capital method do not include dollar estimates for pain and suffering and value-of-life factors. An alternative methodology, described as the "Willingness To Pay" (WTP) approach, assigns values to these factors. The report on Cost of Injury in the United States acknowledges this method and two different values are shown in Table 2.3.

HUMAN CAPITAL COSTS (\$)	WILLINGNESS-TO-PAY VALUES (\$)			
Injury	Injury (Individual) (Societal)			
Not Hospitalized 1,570	Moderate 25,000 30,000			
Hospitalized 43,409	Serious 100,000 115,000			
	Severe 260,000 375,000			
	Critical 1,225,000 1,525,000			
Fatal Injury 352,042	Fatal Injury 1,950,000 2,000,000			

 Table 2.3 Costs per Injured Person: Human Capital and
 Willingness-to-Pay Methods (Dollars)

2.4.4 Per Accident Costs

Rollins and McFarland (1986) developed per-accident costs based on accident severities and on the A-B-C injury severity scale (incapacitating, nonincapacitating, and possible injury, respectively) commonly used in state accident records, rather than on the Maximum Abbreviated Injury Scale (MAIS) used by NHTSA. Accident data from five states, the National Crash Severity Study (NCSS) and the National Accident Sampling System (NASS), were used to relate percentage distributions of injury severities by the MAIS and A-B-C scale.

With this method the cost per property-damage-only (PDO) accident, for example, can be readily calculated from the tables of (1)cost per vehicle involvement and (2)the average number of involvements per PDO accident.

Direct cost = Direct cost per involvement x Involvement per accident Indirect cost = Indirect cost/involvement x Involvement per accident Total cost = Total cost per involvement x Involvements per accident

4

2.4.5 Indirect Accident Costs: Valuation Approaches

Direct costs represent a smaller portion of total motor vehicle accident costs than indirect costs. The Granville Corporation (1984) defined four categories of indirect costs: 1) Social mechanism costs, 2) Human capital (HK) costs, 3) The costs or value of psychosocial deteriorations, and 4) The value of life and safety, as estimated by willingness-to-pay and related approaches.

Social mechanism costs are the costs of managing the activities subsequent to an accident or preventing accidents from occurring. The major sources of social mechanism costs are: Police costs, Fire department costs, Coroner/medical examiner costs, Insurance administration costs, Welfare and public assistance costs, State motor vehicle agency costs, and State and local highway department costs. Human capital (HK) costs are the costs of goods and services not produced as a result of motor vehicle accidents. In other words, human capital costs are equal to the present value of expected future earnings, productivity, or income lost due to morbidity (permanent or temporary disability) and mortality (death). The category of psychosocial deteriorations include pain, family erosion and marital decay, drug and alcohol abuse, juvenile delinquency, missed education, overall reduction in quality of life, and loss of contact with friends, family, and community. Finally, the value of life and safety are individuals' valuations of their "life and limb." More accurately, they are individuals' "willingness to pay" to avoid or be compensated for exposure to risks of death and injury.

Willingness-to-pay estimates are comprehensive assessments of the value of life and safety, including the value of all activities that provide individuals with benefits of living and a premium for psychosocial deteriorations. These values are intended to be used in place of the human capital costs and the psychosocial deterioration costs of motor vehicle accidents.

2.4.6 Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) Study

In 1989, the U.S. Office of Management and Budget directed Federal agencies to compute the dollar benefits of preventing deaths on the basis of the amount that people actually pay or say they would pay for small increases in safety (NYSDOT, 1989). Data systems count crashes and injuries in varied categories to determine the comprehensive cost/crash and cost/person by police-reported crash severity, in 1988 dollars. Nonfatal crashes cost an average of \$72,000, and fatal crashes \$2,722,000. However, it should be noted that the estimate includes pain, suffering, and lost quality of life, wages and household production, as well as out-of-pocket costs.

2.4.7 New York Study

The New York State Department of Transportation (NYSDOT) updates accident costs annually. With the 1989 update, the Department adopted the "Willingness-To-Pay" approach. Table 2.4 shows average accident costs, with New York City included under a separate category.

The NYSDOT also updates the property damage reporting level with the Consumer Price Index. Non-reportable accidents are included in average accident costs. There is only one category of injury.

Агеа Туре	Fatal Acc.	Injury	Fatal &	PDO*
		Acc.	Injury	
URBAN/SUBURBAN/VILLAGE	3,158,700	85,000	112,000	3,300
RURAL .	3,273,800	89,100	166,900	4,600
NEW YORK CITY	3,023,000	84,600	105,500	3,300

 Table 2.4 NYSDOT Average Accident Costs For Calendar Year 1993

*PDO accident includes reportable and non-reportable.

2.4.8 Summary

It is evident from the literature review that any standard or uniform cost data are nonexistent. It is difficult to get consistent cost data which would be applicable to general costbenefit analysis or to the rate of accident severity. The reasons for the discrepancies in accident costs are due to the differences between the concepts of economic cost, and value concept. Indirect values are especially difficult to measure and there are various parameters to be determined in cost studies.

Most states currently use values based on: (1) direct costs, (2) NSC values, or (3) NHTSA values. For fatal accidents, the NSC values do not include any value for the person's self worth, while the NHTSA values include the present value of the person's expected earnings. Although both cost values are commonly used in estimating accident costs, they lack an interpretive value of life or the real market approach. New York State DOT has adopted the "Willingness-To-Pay" concept, which is believed to be a more reasonable approach. NYSDOT's cost data for New York City would be a primary reference in this study.

Table 2.5 presents an overall summary of the literature review indicating studies that were: 1) used for developing ideas, 2) not relevant, and 3) expanded for this study. The literature review was conducted in 1992.

Study/Method	Used for Ideas	Not Relevant	Expanded
 I. Safety Evaluation 1. Frequency Method 2. Accident Rate Method 3. Frequency-Rate Method 4. Kansas City Study 5. Hazardous Roadway Features Method 6. Traffic Conflict Technique 7. Accident Severity Method 8. Hazard Index Method 9. New York's Rate Quality Control Method II. Pedestrian Safety 	x x x x	x x x	X X
 Pedestrian Characteristics Pedestrian Fatals in Virginia Pedestrian Accidents in the Monterial CBD Urban and Rural Environments Pedestrian Exposure Measures Pedestrian Crossings Intersection Ranking Methodology Traffic Conflict Technique 		X X X X X X	X X
 III. Accident Cost 1. National Safety Council Study 2. National Highway Traffic Safety Admin. 3. Costs of Motor Vehicle Injuries 4. Per Accident Costs 5. Indirect Accident Costs 6. Federal Highway Administration Study 7. New York Study 	x	X X X X X X X	

 Table 2.5 Summary of Literature Review

CHAPTER III

DATA COLLECTION AND PROCESSING

3.1 Introduction

To improve the safety of the highway system, the traffic engineer must have information and data on the location, frequency, severity, and type of accidents that are occurring. The study of accidents is fundamentally different from that employed to observe other traffic parameters. Because accidents occur relatively infrequently, and at unpredictable times and locations, they cannot be objectively observed as they occur. Thus, all accident data come from secondary sources--motorist and police accident reports. A notable exception to this is a system for gathering, sorting, and retrieving such information in a useful form must be carefully designed and monitored to provide the traffic engineer with the data needed to properly evaluate and correct traffic-safety deficiencies.

This study consists of data collection and analyses of accident contributing factors. The research is focused on accidents at intersections which comprise 64 percent of total Manhattan accidents, excluding limited-access highways. The product of this study is called the CASIUS (Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets) program. The outcome of this program is 1) expected number of accidents, 2) severity factors, and 3) frequency factor of the intersection being studied. The frequency and the severity factors are very important in safety analysis because of their ability to identify locations with the highest potential of safety improvement, especially when an identical accident type appears repeatedly.

3.2 Data Collection

Data were collected to quantify accident experience, vehicle counts, and inventories of intersections including traffic operations, traffic and pedestrian movements, and parking characteristics.

3.2.1 Field Inventory

The NYCDOT Safety Unit made available the required manpower and equipment for the field work. Two surveyors visited 202 study intersections to fill out the prepared field forms. The following equipment were used for the field inventory:

- Length measuring wheel
- Stop watch
- Polaroid camera

Photo-logging was conducted at all study intersections to maintain the record along with the diagrams from the field work.

3.2.1.1 Intersection Characteristics: The field survey form "A" presented in Figure 3.1 was designed to collect the following intersection characteristics:

- 1. Type of land use (R/C/M--Residential/Commercial/Industrial).
- 2. Posted speed limit (30 mph for the majority of intersections in NYC).
- 3. Geometry of intersection including lane markings, sight distance (G/F/P-good/fair/poor), median, left turn bay, and channelization.
- 4. Type of roadway and intersection (e.g., arterial-local, 4-way/T-type).



INTERSECTION CHARACTERISTICS

-

Land Use	R/C/M	Posted Speed	Major;	Minor;		
Geometry	Grade/Level	Median on Any	Leg	Y/N		
Channelization	Y/N	Sight Distance	G/F/P			
Comm. Traffic	Y/N	Left Turn Lane	Y/N			
Lane Markings	G/F/P/None	Overall Marking	G/F/P			
Roadway Type	Arterial & Art/ Art & I	Local/ Local & Lo	ocal (rf. H	agstrom Map)		
Intersection Type	4-Way/ T/ Y/ Multi-Le					
Type of Control	Signal/ Stop/ Yield/ Fla	Signal/ Stop/ Yield/ Flash/N-Control				
Signal Control	Cycle Length 60/90/	Cycle Length 60/90/120 No. of Phases 2/3/				

Figure 3.1 CASIUS Field Survey Form A

- 5. Type of traffic control (e.g., signalized, stop controlled).
- 6. Signal timings and phasing.

3.2.1.2 Pedestrian Data: The field survey form "B" presented in Figure 3.2 was designed to collect the following field information on pedestrian activities:

- 1. Sketch of crosswalk pavement markings.
- 2. Condition of crosswalk (good/fair/poor)
- 3. Crosswalk with the highest pedestrian activity (north/south/east/west).
- 4. Width of crosswalk.
- 5. Pedestrian level of service (determined visually by taking photographs and using professional judgement).
- 6. Pedestrian signal timings.
- 7. Pedestrian volume (high/medium/ low).
- 8. Existence of mass transportation.

Pedestrian exposure measures can be developed by combining the pedestrian and vehicle activity and eventually relating it to the pedestrian accident characteristics. However, pedestrian counts at the 202 sample intersections were not available, and obtaining those counts was quite a difficult process. As an alternative, a Traffic Conflicts Technique (TCT) concept was used which requires parameters such as pedestrian signal timing, crosswalk condition, and the dimension of pedestrian crossings--sum of major and minor (W1 + W2), the ratio (W1/W2), and the product $(W1 \times W2)$, or just the width of the major pedestrian crossing (W1).



PEDESTRIAN ACTIVITY

- 1) Sketch the crosswalk markings on the above diagram.
- 2) The condition of crosswalk markings (overall: G/F/P)
- 3) Select one crosswalk with the higher pedestrian activity: N/S/E/W (Leg)
- 4) Measure the width of that one crosswalk: _____Ft.
- 5) Take pictures of the same crosswalk to show the pedestrian level of service (to cover the whole distance).
- 6) Pedestrian Signal of the same Leg: Legend/Color Lens/None.
- 7) Pedestrian count (overall: High/Med/Low)
- 8) Platoon effect observed due to pedestrian congestion: Y/N

Type of Ped Signal				Pedestrian Cycle (Sec.)			
Leg	Legend	Lens	None	Walk	Fldw	Dont Walk	Total C/L
N							
E							
S							
W							

Figure 3.2 CASIUS Field Survey Form B

3.2.2 Accident Data

Accident experience was compiled from:

- Three years of Centralized Local Accident Surveillance System (CLASS) data from the New York State Department of Transportation, January 1989-December 1991.
- Three years of accident summaries and summary descriptions at each of the
 202 study intersections, January 1989-December 1991.
- Five years of traffic fatality data and analyses from the New York City Department of Transportation, 1987-1991;

The CLASS data have a detailed breakdown by accident type and intersection characteristics, including various sub-categories of pedestrian and non-pedestrian accidents, such as at-intersection and not-at-intersection, signalized and unsignalized intersections. Table 3.1 shows the number of intersections and accidents in the boroughs of Manhattan, Queens, Kings (Brooklyn), the Bronx, Richmond (Staten Island), and the entire City of New York during 1989-1991. A summary of motor vehicle accidents in Manhattan is included in Appendix A.

	INTERSECTIONS			ACCIDENTS				
Boro	Signalized	Unsig-	Total.	In 1989	In 1990	In 1991	Avg/Yr	Per Int.
Manh.	2709	986	3695	22055	22197	20603	21618	5.9
Queens	2285	11812	14097	36028	35946	32233	34735	2.5
Kings	3262	6552	9814	32524	33450	31441	32471	3.3
Brook.	1483	4321	5804	16917	16680	15106	16234	2.8
Richm.	359	4203	4562	6249	6398	5883	6176	1.4
Citywide	10098	27874	37972	113773	114671	105266	111237	2.9

 Table 3.1
 Accident Frequency at NYC Signalized and Unsignalized Intersections

Boro	%Ped.	1989 Ped.	1990 Ped.	1991 Ped.	Ped. Avg.	% of Ped.
						at Int.
Manh.	20	4393	4529	4364	4429	68.5
Citywide	14	14841	15544	14992	15124	65.1

Source: NYSDMV MV-144 Summary (1989-1991)

3.2.3 Vehicular Volume Data

Automated traffic recorder (ATR) counts from 1987 to 1992 were obtained from the NYCDOT's Planning Office. For all approaches of the 202 intersections used for this study, the ATR counts were available. Weekday averages between 7 AM and 7 PM were selected to measure the magnitude of traffic demand in terms of total entering vehicles (V1 + V2 + V3 + V4), or the product of critical approach volumes (V1 x V3).

3.3 Data Processing

The Paradox 4.0 software was used for data processing. A custom form for data entry was developed which consisted of four tables comprising; 1) intersection number, location, node number, 2) three-year accident summary, 3) intersection characteristics such as land use, intersection type, control type, pavement marking condition, roadway type, existence of public transit, signal operation, and 4) vehicular volume and traffic operation.

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CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENT OF CORRELATION AMONG VARIABLES

4.1 Identifying Problem Areas

Establishing a comprehensive safety index for urban intersections involves contributing factors more complicated than those of suburban areas. Due to many variables, including accident frequency, the sample size of 202 intersections used in this study may not be sufficient to identify all contributing factors to intersection safety. Grouping of sample intersections and setting a set of stratified accident data may be difficult because of the complex interaction of contributing factors. Calculating the proper ratio of severity factor will be very important. For example, if the severity factor of fatal accidents is too high, the random fatalities will be overvalued against PDO accidents that usually are more frequent and offer easier countermeasures. Safety countermeasures can be suggested from the product of accident frequency and severity by intersection.

The surrogates to pedestrian volume data, such as land use, may not be able to represent the actual pedestrian activity or pedestrian/vehicle conflicts. Pedestrian behavior at signalized intersections varies. Although the study aims to separate pedestrian accidents from non-pedestrian accidents from its early stage, pedestrian accidents have higher accident severity and randomness. Developing a formula to reflect relative hazards would also be complex because most of the existing equations are based on traffic conflicts, or accident potential.

4.2 Analysis on Contributing Factors

Figure 4.1 is a schematic diagram of procedures for evaluating signalized intersection accident surrogates. The establishment of the comprehensive safety index includes parameters of 1) local factors: roadway classification, land use, and demographics, and 2) node factors: roadway geometry, vehicular speed, traffic volume, traffic operation, traffic control, parking characteristics, and pedestrian activity.

Expected number of accidents per intersection classification is a multiplication of normalizing factors onto average annual accident factors at study intersections. Normalizing factors related with accident frequency or accident severity are the function of the pedestrian volume (P) factor, the vehicular volume (V) factor, and the pedestrian/vehicle interaction (PV) factor as a multiplication of both. The evaluation of the pedestrian factor is discussed in Section 4.3.

Based on the above frequency distribution and sensitivity analysis, a safety index formula can be derived:

Accident rates at intersections can be produced through the merge of data files-intersection file, traffic file (pedestrian and vehicular), and accident file (NYSDOT CLASS data). The reported number of accidents at the location, in terms of accident frequency, can be compared with various normalizing factors and traffic exposures at the subject location and with the Manhattan average. The ten-year Manhattan accident figures during 1983-1992 are presented in Table 4.1.



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YEAR	FAT.	INJ.	PROP	NON-RPRT	TOTAL	TOTAL	N- L*	PED
			DMGE		ACC	LOCS		ACC
1983	111	13229	6904	29389	4963	8212	60-40	3825
1984	107	13594	6636	30690	51027	8187	58-42	4020
1985	90	14473	6050	38628	59241	8882	60-40	4441
1986	108	15913	5562	42514	64097	9225	62-38	4657
1987	105	15925	6053	43215	65298	9444	62-38	4563
1988	100	15799	6365	45631	67895	9172	61-39	4637
1 98 9	109	15731	6215	46926	68980	9090	61-39	4504
1990	132	16110	5955	44033	66230	9140	60-40	4529
1991	95	15917	4591	44955	65558	9196	60-40	4364
10 YEAR	AVERAG	E						
		105	15348	5755	41121	62329	8967	60-40

 Table 4.1 Manhattan 10-Year Accident (1983-1992)

Source: Borough-wide Accident Information Report

* N-L: Node vs. link data

4.2.1 Accident Rate Based on Vehicle Volume

Conventional traffic safety analysis systems compute accident rates for county/statewide areas using general accident parameters such as population, miles of highway, or vehicle miles traveled (VMT). At intersections, the accident rate can be expressed as accidents per vehicles entering the subject intersection. The objective of the analysis is to determine the relationship between accident characteristics at intersections and vehicle volume at 202 sample intersections. Approach volumes are categorized in three different ways: 1) Total Vehicle Volume (TVV), 2) Sum of Critical Volume (SCV), and 3) Critical Vehicle Volume (CVV).

Table 4.2 shows the relationship between accidents and volume, as determined by curve fitting analysis.

	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Error (%)
Total Volume	0.61	0.3734	58
Sum of Critical Volume	0.49	0.2132	96
Critical Volume	0.41	0.1659	93

Table 4.2 Relationship Between Accidents and Volume

The highest correlation coefficient does not necessarily indicate the best relationship between the two variables of accidents and volume. However, total vehicle volume (TVV) in Table 4.2 has a higher coefficient than other variables compared, and it means that accident frequency is more closely related to the number of total entering vehicles than critical approach volume. Also, the error is smaller (58%) for total vehicle volume. Therefore, the TVV variable will be used hereafter as an accident surrogate.

The average vehicle volume at the sample intersections is 22,321, and the average accident frequency during the three-year period is 74. At the intersection with the highest vehicle volume, the total volume is 52,883 with an accident frequency of 66, and the intersection with the lowest vehicle volume of 1,168 has an accident frequency of 33. The highest accident frequency at an intersection is 387 with a 33,040 vehicle volume, and the lowest frequency is 3 with volume of 7,503 vehicles. However, this relationship is not applicable to the intersections with extreme accident frequency or volume size. At these intersections, other accident variables prevail, and have a greater safety impact than traffic volume.

For example, the intersection with the highest volume (52,883) has a critical crosswalk length of 104 feet, which is the longest among sample intersections. However, the sum of conflict point is low (9.82) at this intersection, compared to the highest conflict point (16) among the sample intersections. It means that the accident rate is lower at intersections with large dimensions because lane capacity is higher at multi-lane approaches, whereas the conflict point is low, perhaps because of turning restrictions at major approaches. The critical crosswalk length at the intersection with the highest accident frequency is only 73, but the conflict point is considerably high (11.5), resulting in a higher accident rate. In these extreme cases, other accident variables such as conflict points have a greater impact on safety than traffic volume.

Table 4.3 presents the results of a curve fitting analysis for the categories of signalcontrolled and stop-controlled intersections.

	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Average Volume	Average Acci.	Number of Intersection	Error (%)
Signal	0.49	0.24	25588	85.7	167	66
Stop	0.53	0.28	6729	18.1	35	53

 Table 4.3 Signalized and Stop-Controlled Intersections

The accident rate based on vehicle volume is higher at signalized intersections. Vehicle volume per accident at signalized intersections is 298, and 370 at stop-controlled intersections. In general, accident frequency is proportional to traffic volume. However, the issue of signalization has not been considered because the correlation is lower than that of other variables applicable to all intersections. Figure 4.2 shows the relationship between accident frequency and traffic volume. The curve fitting equation is:

$$Y = -4.71325 + 0.00353X \tag{4.2}$$

However, the difference between calculated accident frequency and real accident frequency increases when vehicle volume is more than 30,000. The relationship is weak as the number of total entering vehicles increases. Table 4.4 shows the relationships by aggregated volume size.

Volume	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Avg. Volume	Avg. Accident	# of Locat.	Error (%)
<5,000	-0.0143	0.000190.24	2835	12.57	14	65
<10,000	0.22875	0.0523	7622	21.22	18	80
<20,000	0.51787	0.26818	14849	48.27	43	58
<30,000	0.04540	0.0020	25098	77.39	85	42
>30,000	0.11594	0.01344	35861	133.5	42	58

Table 4.4 Accident Relationship by Aggregated Volume Size

The correlation for each volume size does not show better results than the fitting curve analysis for total vehicle volume. The analysis per vehicle volume indicates that accident frequency generally increases with vehicle volume, but not with a strong relationship.

4.2.2 Conflict Point System

The traffic conflicts technique (TCT) has been used to estimate the relationship between traffic conflicts and accidents. Despite the diversity of opinions on its usefulness, the


concept is widespread and the method is used by many safety engineers for its convenient technique of field observation. The definition of conflict in this study differs from the conventional meaning of traffic conflict. Conflicting points at intersection would mean number of conflicting points between maneuvering vehicles as the denominator of an intersection safety index. The number of conflict points at study intersections will reflect the conflict potential. To reflect the risk involved with left-turn movements, left-turn maneuvers have been considered to be equivalent to three through or right-turn movements. Total conflict points have been calculated in two different ways, and the results are shown in Table 4.5.

1. Sum: (Left Turn * 3) + Thru + Right

2. Product: (Left Turn * 3) * Thru * Right

Table 4.5 Conflict Method

Conflict Method	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Average Conflict	Avg. Acci.	# of Location	Error
1	0.56	0.32	6.69	74	202	1.01
2	0.40	0.16	20.59	74	202	1.31

Both the correlation coefficient and determination coefficient work out better when the number of conflict points are added (Method 1), rather than multiplied (Method 2). The fitting curve equations for methods 1 and 2 are:

1) Y = -8.3140 + 12.2978X (4.3)

2) Y = 62.1775 + 0.57697X (4.4)

Method 1 has been selected for application because of its lower error rate. As shown in Figure 4.3, the real accident frequency is lower than that calculated at conflict points below 10, but it becomes very high when the conflict points are over 10. Figure 4.4 shows a better relationship between conflict points and accident frequency, using method 1. The correlation is high (0.56146), but the error is also high (100.8%).

Table 4.6 shows the results of curve fitting analyses for different ranges of conflict points.

Interval	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Average Conflict	Avg. Acci.	# of Locat.	Error
0.00 - 3.99	0.34419	0.11168	2.9	15.90	11	0.62810
4.00 - 4.99	0.46937	0.2203	4.37	44.57	49	0.68479
5.00 - 5.99	0.18929	0.0358	5.46	64.58	51	0.5177
6.00 - 6.99 [.]	-0.12275	0.015	6.45	56.60	25	1.22376
7.00 - 7.99	-0.13911	0.01935	7.185	54.12	8	2.47469
8.00 - 8.99	-0.809	0.6544	8.205	76.75	4	1.358
9.00 - 9.99	-0.35826	0.1283	9.092	120.33	30	0.51219
10.00 -	0.01832	0.00035	12.6108	147.08	24	0.58959

Table 4.6 Conflict Analysis per Aggregate Conflict Points



Figure 4.3 Accident and Conflict Multiplied (Method 1)

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The correlation of each individual conflict range is no better than that of total conflicts. In either case, the two variables of accident frequency and traffic conflicts have a good relationship. However, the conflict itself may not be able to represent the accident environment of the subject intersection.

4.2.3 Accident Rate Based on Signal Timing

With a few exceptions, signalized intersections in Manhattan have 90 seconds of pre-timed signal length. Out of the 202 study intersections, 167 intersections are signalized. Signal timing is a variation of longest signal phase within 90 seconds of cycle length. The proportion of signal timing has been explored for a possible relationship with accidents. The curve fitting analysis on the relationship between signal timing and accident frequency is as following:

Correlation Coefficient: -0.33634 Determination Coefficient: 0.113126 Error: 78.923%

The negative number in the correlation coefficient indicates that total accident frequency decreases as the longest signal phase increases. From the curve fitting equation, accident frequency becomes negative when the signal phase on the major approach goes beyond 72.65 seconds. However, the maximum timing in Manhattan is 65 seconds.

$$Y = 305.87845 - 4.21901X \tag{4.5}$$

Table 4.7 shows average accident frequency per signal timing.

Signal Timing	Average Accidents	Number of Intersections
35	229	1
40	155.75	4
45	120.13	23
50	89.74	51
55	69	71
60	72	15
65	65.5	2

 Table 4.7 Signal Timing and Accident Frequency

As shown in Figure 4.5, the number of accidents decreases as the signal phase on major approaches increases. As previously discussed, lane efficiency is higher at multi-lane approaches and the accident rate per vehicle volume declines. Consequently, signal timing variation can be used as an accident surrogate representing the ratio of major and minor approaches.

4.2.4 Accident Rate Based on Crosswalk Dimension

Crosswalk dimension represents the overall size of intersections, unless medians or other exceptional geometry exists. When the size of an intersection increases, traffic demand is assumed to generally increase as well. Table 4.8 shows a curve fitting analysis on crosswalk dimension in four different types of calculations.





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Crosswalk	Correlation	Determination	Error
Dimension	Coefficient	Coefficient	
W1	0.45	0.1998	1.09
W1/W2	0.18	0.0328	1.46
W1*W2	0.54	0.2947	0.98
W1+W2	0.57	0.3202	0.91

Table 4.8 Crosswalk Dimension Correlations

W1: the longest crosswalk

W2: longer crosswalk adjacent to W1

The highest correlations are found for the sum of W1 and W2, and correlations are lowest for the ratio of W1/W2. Figure 4.6 contains the graph for the variable W1 + W2. Crosswalk dimensions are also related to traffic demand and to accident frequency. In general, accident frequency increases as more vehicles transverse wider intersections. The calculated correlation between crosswalk dimension and traffic volume is considerably high, 0.59, and the relationship between traffic volume, crosswalk dimension, and accident frequency is higher than any other variables discussed so far. Table 4.9 and Figure 4.7 present a breakdown of crosswalk dimension and its relationship to traffic volume and average accidents.



Figure 4.6 Crosswalk Dimension and Accidents

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Crosswalk	Average	Traffic	Average	# of
Dimension	Dimension	Volume	Accident	Locations
<60	49.6	5686	11.8	5
<80	71.58	9474	22.58	24
<100	89.66	19372	47.79	59
<120	106.92	24887	82.85	70
<140	126.00	30393	130.32	28
<160	146.00	32184	128.00	7
<180	168.00	35508	119.00	6
>180	206.00	26197	156.00	3

 Table 4.9 Crosswalk Dimension and Accidents

As shown in Table 4.10, the end result of the analysis on actual crosswalk length is quite similar to that of the total crosswalk dimension. When the width of existing parking lanes is excluded from the calculation, the traffic volume per lane increases and the number of accidents increases as well.

Crosswalk	Average	Traffic	Average	# of
Dimension	Dimension	Volume	Accident	Locations
<60	43.18	13051	33.57	61
<80	70.00	23506	69.50	80
<100	84.76	28186	104.32	34
<120	107.41	31950	125.00	12
<140	127.40	32706	121.70	10
>140	168.80	32681	214.40	5

 Table 4.10 Actual Crosswalk Dimension and Accidents

4.2.5 Accident and Roadway Type

The roadways transversing the 202 study intersections have been classified into arterials and local roads. This involved three types of roadway junctions; arterial/local, arterial/arterial, or local/local. The relationship between the roadway types and accident frequency is shown in Table 4.11.

Roadway Type	Traffic Volume	Average Accident	Volume per Accident	Number of Locations
Arterial/Local	29527	130.18	226.81	95
Arterial/Arterial	23621	61.18	386.09	59
Local/Local	10686	30.14	354.54	48

Table 4.11 Accident and Roadway Type

The above analysis indicates that both traffic volume and accident frequency are high at the juncture of arterial/local facilities. When arterial/local intersections are compared with local/local intersections, the former experience three times the volume and 4.3 times the accident frequency of the latter; the former is 37 percent more dangerous in terms of volume per accident. The arterial/local intersections have the highest volume and accident rate. Arterial/arterial intersections are the least hazardous with a 386.09 ratio of volume per accident.

4.2.6 Severity Adjustment

Injury and fatal accidents have been converted into the simple frequency of PDO (property damage only) type accidents or EPDO (equivalent-property-damage-only) accidents. The National Safety Council (NSC) classification uses:

$$EPDO = 9.5(F + A) + 3.5(B + C) + PDO$$
(4.6)

where the letters indicate F for fatal, A, B, and C-type injury accidents.

New York State Department of Transportation defines the injury classes A as: severe lacerations, broken or distorted limbs, skull fractures, crushed chest, internal injuries, unconscious when taken from accident scene, unable to leave accident scene without assistance; B as: Limp or head abrasions or minor lacerations, and C as: momentary unconsciousness, limping, nausea, hysteria, complaint of pain but no visible injury. Injury-No Class in this study means unidentified injury class.

Non-reportable accidents are the incidents without police reports or those with damage estimates below \$1,000. Non-reportable comprise approximately 20 percent of the total frequency. Non-reportable also include any property damage only (PDO) accidents reported through police, without estimate of damage. The Traffic Record Bureau of the New York State Department of Motor Vehicles waits 30 days after the date of an accident for the motorist's report or an estimate from any involved insurance company to match with the police report. As shown in the attached pages, non-reportable accidents have a date of accident occurrence and a Department of Motor Vehicles (DMV) case number.

Table 4.12 presents the logic behind the proposed severity factor developed for the project's safety index.

Abbreviation	Accident Class	Average Cost	Relative Weight
NR	Non-Reportable	700	1
PD	Property Damage	2,975	4
IC	Injury-Class C	53,000	76
IB	Injury-Class B	212,000	303
IA	Injury-Class A	850,000	1214
FA	Fatal Accident	1,910,000	2729
IN*	Injury-No Class	154,785	221

Table 4.12 Preliminary Accident Cost Per Accident Class

Each accident is multiplied by its relative weight (RW) and summed for a single total result. The natural log of the total yields the actual severity factor. A general chart is utilized to determine its level of severity. For example: 0.0 to 3.0 = acceptable, 3.0 to 6.0 = not severe, 6.0 to 9.0 = severe, and 9.0 & up = most severe. The severity rating will be further developed through computer processing of CLASS data, under different categories of Accident Type, Type of Collision, and Roadway Class.

4.2.7 Accident Frequency Factor and Severity

The relationship between the severity and accident frequency has been investigated. Table 4.13 shows the accident frequency against accident severity.

Accident Severity	Accumulated Accident Frequency	Percentage
X0 (Fatal Accident)	11	0.07
X1 (Injury - A Class)	455	3.04
X2 (Injury - B Class)	762	5.10
X3 (Injury - C Class)	2512	16.80
X0_1 (Property Damage)	1094	7.32
X0_2 (Non-Reportable)	10114	67.66

 Table 4.13 Accident Frequency Per Accident Severity

The formula for accident severity is:

$$SF = Ln (X0 * 2729 + X1 * 1214 + X2 * 303 + X3 * 76 + 4 * X0_1 + X0_2)$$
(4.7)

Since the formula reflects accident frequency, the frequency has been adjusted by assigning a certain weight. As shown in the above table, non-reportable accidents are 67.66 percent, while fatal accidents are only 0.07 percent of the total fatal accident is, therefore, assigned the weight of 2,729 against a non-reportable accident.

The accident severity and accident frequency resulted in higher correlations, as shown in Table 4.14.

Accident Severity	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Error
X0 + X1	0.67138	0.4507	1.09
X2	0.59030	0.3484	1.46
X3	0.60034	0.3604	0.98
X0_1	0.51387	0.2640	0.91
X0_2	0.52117	0.2716	

 Table 4.14 Accident Severity Correlations

4.2.8 Speed Variance and Taxi Involvement

Most accidents result from a combination of several contributing factors, such as unsafe human behavior, roadway condition, vehicular malfunction, and so on. Nationwide, about 80 percent of the total accidents were attributed to human behavior, roughly 15 percent to environmental factors, and the remaining 5 percent to vehicular malfunction.

In Manhattan, during the three year period of 1989-1991, the apparent accident contributing factors are 45.6 percent human, 5.6 percent environmental, 4.7 percent vehicular, and 44.1 percent none or unspecified. Unsafe speed averaged 3.1 percent out of the total 45.6 percent of accidents caused by human factors. Although it is known that several speed characteristics may affect accident rates, the CLASS summary indicates that speeding is not a major contributing factor in traffic accidents in Manhattan's grid system. According to New York City Department of Transportation's field speed survey, the combined avenue and street speed for the fall of 1993 was 6.5 mph. Speeds on avenues in Midtown Manhattan averaged 7.8 mph, and speeds on streets were 5.4 mph, which was lower than that of avenues. The actual approach speeds at intersections were observed to be stable, and the speed limit on the local roads in New York City is 30 mph.

The New York City taxi service has long a history, beginning 1907, and it plays an important role in paratransit, especially in Manhattan. As of 1989, 43,925 taxicabs were registered in New York City out of 2,015,629 total automobiles, or two percent of the total. New York City accidents involving taxis are roughly nine percent, and the proportion is considerably high compared to the number of registered vehicles. However, the higher proportion of taxi-involved accidents can be explained by higher VMT (vehicle miles traveled), or VIM (vehicle in motion) in comparison with automobiles. Since most cab

drivers shun the outer boroughs, yellow cabs cruise around Manhattan contributing about 50% of the VMT. Therefore, a separate variable of taxi involvement in accidents was not included in the analysis.

4.3 Pedestrian Factors

As pedestrian activity in the CBD area constitutes a substantial portion of urban transportation, conflicts between pedestrians and vehicles occur at nodes or intersections of urban areas. In 1991, 4,284 pedestrian accidents, 25 percent of total accidents, were reported in Manhattan. The proportion of pedestrian-involved accidents is 17 percent citywide, and the lowest is in the borough of Staten Island with six percent. Out of 4,284 pedestrian accidents, 65 were fatal and the rest were injury accidents, indicating the high severity of pedestrian accidents. Safety variables related with pedestrian accidents have been investigated to analyze the accident contributing factors such as traffic volume, crosswalk length, floor area of adjacent buildings of the study intersections, signal timing, and conflict points.

4.3.1 Pedestrian Accident and Traffic Volume

During the three year period, the number of average pedestrian accidents at the 202 study intersections was 5.8, and there were 26 (12%) locations without any pedestrian accidents. Table 4.15 compares pedestrian accidents with traffic volume.

Pedestrian	Traffic Volume	# of Locations
Accident		
0	12655	26
1	14240	22
2	16315	24
3	21351	22
4	23209	19
5-9	27229	49
10-14	28990	22
15-20	28474	9
20-over	37327	31

Table 4.15 Pedestrian Accident and Traffic Volume

The correlation between pedestrian accidents and traffic volume is considerably high (0.53361), and the relationship is also shown in Figure 4.8. As Table 4.16 indicates, pedestrian accidents increase with traffic volume, and the type of intersection control does not significantly affect pedestrian safety.

Table 4.16 Pedestrian Accident and Type of Control

Type of Control	Traffic Volume	Pedestrian Accident (Avg.)	Number of Locations
Signal Control	25588	6.7	167
Stop Control	6729	1.22	35

Based on the accident data at 202 sample intersections, 20 intersections with high pedestrian accidents were selected for an in-depth analysis. Table 4.17 summarizes the pedestrian accidents and traffic data at those 20 intersections. The curve fitting analysis has



Figure 4.8 Traffic Volume and Pedestrian Accident

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been used to find an adequate exposure measure for traffic volume and percentage of turning vehicles. Different exposure measures and their correlations are shown in Table 4.18.

Intersection No.	Ped. Volume	Vehicle Volume	Left Turn Vehicle	Thru Vehicle	Right Turn Vehicle	Ped. Accident
8	121	210	53	157	0	19
12	312	210	40	170	0	14
15	113	629	44	457	128	16
21	221	533	37	436	60	18
33	275	451	42	355	54	21
35	1409	335	0	330	5	27
44	419	410	0	303	107	14
47	905	409	0	402	7	21
51	178	365	39	283	43	25
54	250	435	23	361	51	32
57	243	482	0	428	54	21
59	336	532	29	462	41	50
72	185	184	64	120	0	16
73	201	214	0	194	20	20
100	89	272	63	190	19	22
118	44	223	78	113	32	16
126	282	223	36	151	36	15
134	702	108	13	85	10	18
157	173	420	56	302	62	15
177	96	130	28	85	17	16

 Table 4.17 Traffic Data and Pedestrian Accident at Sample Intersections

Exposure Measure	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient
Pedestrian Volume	0.18983	0.0360
Vehicle Volume	0.37247	0.13873
Ped*Veh/Turn	0.18032	0.03251
Ped*Veh	0.33245	0.11052
Veh/Ped	-0.10264	0.01053

Table 4.18 Pedestrian Accident and PV Factor

Vehicle volume shows the best relationship among the exposure measures reviewed. The number of accidents increases as vehicle volume increases, and the multiplication of pedestrian volume by vehicle volume shows a high correlation as well. An equation to estimate the safety at intersection can be derived as follows:

From Table 4.18, three different exposure measures have been selected to analyze a relationship with pedestrian accidents, and the result of the curve fitting analysis is shown in Table 4.19.

 Table 4.19 Pedestrian Accident Rate

Accident Rate	Exposure Type	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient
1	Veh. Vol.	0.17419	0.0303
2	P x V	-0.15260	0.02328
3	P*V/Turns	-0.21952	0.048

The accident rate using P*V/Turns shows a better correlation than that using a pedestrian factor, vehicle factor, or PV factor. This means that the number of turning vehicles contributes more significantly to accident frequency. As a result, intersections with lower vehicle and pedestrian volume and higher proportion of turning vehicles generates a higher accident rate.

Table 4.19 shows that accident rates can be better determined by a matrix of variables. For example, accident rates are low at intersections 33, 44, 47, and 57, where the PV factor is comparatively high but the proportion of turning vehicles is low. At intersection 118, the multiplication of pedestrian and vehicle volume, PV factor, is low (9812), but the ratio of turning vehicles is high (97%), resulting in the highest accident rate. Due to difficulties in representing pedestrian activities, other pedestrian data such as pedestrian level of service, crosswalk marking conditions, and existence of mass transit facilities were not incorporated in the analysis.

4.3.2 Pedestrian Accident and Crosswalk Size

The analysis on pedestrian accident and crosswalk dimension investigates the influence of length of crosswalk on pedestrian accidents. As safety variables, the crosswalk lengths both at major and minor approaches are analyzed. Table 4.20 contains the curve fitting curve analysis on the correlations of pedestrian accident and crosswalk length.

Crosswalk Dimension	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Error
W1/W2	- 0.10463	0.010947	1.46
W1+W2	0.37446	0.140221	0.91

Table 4.20 Pedestrian Accident and Crosswalk Size

W1: the longest crosswalk, W2: longer crosswalk adjacent to W1

The above table indicates that the ratio of W1 (longest crosswalk) over W2 (longer crosswalk adjacent to W1) resulted in a negative correlation confirming the assumption that longer crosswalks are more exposed to pedestrian accidents. Instead, the sum of W1 and W2 shows a high correlation of 0.37446. However, the accident frequency decreases at intersections where crosswalk size is longer than 150, as shown in Figure 4.9.

4.3.3 Floor Area and Signal Timing

The total floor area of adjacent buildings to the study intersections has been investigated, to evaluate the concept that a pedestrian trip generation rate is a factor in accidents. The result of curve fitting analysis indicates that the correletation coefficient (-0.01362) and determination coefficient (0.00018) are too low to allow the variables to be included in the model.

The proportion of signal timing is an important environmental factor for pedestrian safety, generally dependent on crosswalk size. According to the curve fitting analysis, the correlation coefficient is - 0.35246. As shown in Figure 4.10, the number of pedestrian accidents decreases as signal timing increases at wider crosswalks. For example, the average crosswalk size is 86 feet at intersections with 35 seconds of pedestrian crossing time. This is the lowest proportion of pedestrian crossing time at the 202 study intersections. Technically, pedestrians should have enough time to complete the crossing at one time at the speed of 2.45 fps. However, the accident data indicate that these locations are more exposed to pedestrian hazards.







4.3.4 Pedestrian Accident and Conflicts Points

The traffic conflicts technique (TCT) has been applied to estimate the relationship between traffic conflicts and pedestrian accidents. The frequency of pedestrian accidents correlates to some extent with the number of conflicts. However, as shown in Table 4.21 and Figure 4.11, the average accident frequency decreases as the number of conflicts gets beyond to 12. Between conflict points 6 and 8, traffic volume and the number of pedestrian accidents decrease, although crosswalk dimension increases gradually. Consequently, the relationship between pedestrian accidents and conflict points need to be analyzed in a more comprehensive way to include other factors such as traffic volume or crosswalk dimension.

Conflict	Average Accident	Crosswalk Dimension	Traffic Volume	# of Location
< 4	1.1818	65.54	7148	11
< 6	4.22	93.97	20827	100
< 8	3.75	100.60	17496	33
< 10	11.18	118.79	29875	34
< 12	13.66	121.44	33102	9
>= 12	7.47	156.73	30425	15

 Table 4.21 Pedestrian Accident and Conflict Points



Figure 4.11 Pedestrian Accident and Traffic Conflict

CHAPTER V

DEVELOPMENT OF TRAFFIC SAFETY INDEX

5.1 Introduction

The final stage of this project is to create a user-friendly software program, which provides a safety index rating to illustrate the relative hazardousness for Manhattan intersections. CASIUS is an acronym for Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets. This computer program consists of a database module and an analysis module. The analysis module identifies locations with safety problems based on composite factors which consist of accident severity and accident frequency.

An existing similar computer program is Highway Safety Analysis & Monitoring (HISAM), developed by Harkey et al. in 1987, sponsored by USDOT's Federal Highway Administration (FHWA). Currently, the program is not widely used, and its major drawback is that the outcome of the calculation does not represent an evaluation of the study location's safety. The converted Equivalent Property Damage Only (EPDO) numbers do not provide any meaningful conclusion due to the lack of comparison of results with other study locations.

5.2 CASIUS Logic

The logic behind the CASIUS severity factor index development is presented in Tables 5.1 and 5.2. The average percentage of injury accidents for each class developed in Table 5.2 is used in CASIUS.

Abbreviation	Accident Class	Average Cost	Relative Weight
NR	Non-Reportable	700	1
PD	Property Damage	2975	4
IC	Injury-Class C	53000	76
IB	Injury-Class B	212000	303
IA	Injury-Class A	850000	1214
FA	Fatal Accident	1910000	2729
IN	Injury-No Class	154785	221

 Table 5.1 Accident Cost Per Accident Class

 Table 5.2 Injury Accident Class Statistics

YEAR	TOTAL	А	В	С
1989	116308	11285	22137	82886
1990	112245	11273	21731	89241
1991	118964	10466	20209	88289
TOTALS	357517	33024	64077	260416
AVERAGE	119172	11008	21359	86805
PERCENT	100%	9.2%	17.9%	72.9%

Each accident is multiplied by its relative weight (RW) and summed so that a single total results for the location under review. The natural log (Ln) of the total yields the actual

severity factor. The procedure is demonstrated with examples in Table 5.3. To determine the severity level, the severity factor chart of Table 5.4 is used. Various levels of severity can be deternimed primarily from the relative weights assigned to each accident class. For example, one can assume that combinations of non-reportable and property damage only accidents should indicate little or no severity. Likewise, if only one Class C injury accident was included, then the severity should rise to the next level. Continuing with this logic, the next severity level would require only one Class B injury accidents added to the previous level and so on to the highest level attainable.

ACCIDENTS						
TOTAL	FA	IA	IB	IC	PD	NR
1. Boro: M	anhattan, Int	ersection: Pa	ark Avenue a	t 33rd Street	(3 year aver	rage)
65	0	3	25	12	4	21
Rela	ative Weight	= 12,166;	Seve	rity Factor =	9.4 (highest)	
2. Boro: M	anhattan, Int	ersection: Pa	ark Avenue a	t 40th Street	(3 year aver	age)
29 ·	0	1	3	9	1	15
Rela	ative Weight	= 2,826;	Sever	rity Factor =	7.9 (medium	/high)
3. Boro: Qu	ueens, Inters	ection: Cross	s Bay Blvd at	S. Conduit A	Ave (1990 r	eports)
31	31 0 IN = 10 4 17			17		
Relative Weight = 2,243; Severity Factor = 7.7 (medium)						
4. Boro: Queens, Intersection: Woodside Ave at 37th Ave (1990 reports)						
9	0	IN = 3			1	5
Rela	Relative Weight = 672; Severity Factor = 6.5 (low)					

Table 5.3 Examples on Determining Relative Weight and Severity Factor

 Table 5.4 Severity Factor Chart

SEVERITY FACTOR	DESCRIPTION	RELATIVE WEIGHT
[Ln (RW)]	SEVERITY LEVEL	(RW)
0.0 TO 3.0	NONE/NO SEVERITY	0 TO 20
3.0 TO 6.0	LOWEST SEVERITY	20 TO 400
6.0 TO 7.0	LOW SEVERITY	400 TO 1100
7.0 TO 8.0	MEDIUM SEVERITY	1100 TO 3000
8.0 TO 9.0	HIGH SEVERITY	3000 TO 8100
9.0 TO 9.9	HIGHEST SEVERITY	8100 TO 20000

Table 5.5 presents the logic behind the development of an intersection type factor which is a part of the CASIUS safety index development. It can be postulated that as a location becomes a more complex form, driver error and hence accident experience will increase. For example, a road link (assume all AASHTO design criteria are met), should experience fewer accidents than a "T" intersection, while a four-way intersection should experience a higher number of incidents than a "T", and so on. If it is assumed that under perfect conditions, this relation is due solely to potential conflict points, then the number of conflict points should fairly reflect the change in complexity (and possibly accident experience) at a locations.

Table 5.5 Conflict Points Per Lane-Movement

MOVEMENT	NO. OF CONFLICTS
LEFT TURN	3
STRAIGHT	2
RIGHT TURN	1

Notes: A. Two-way link has 2 conflict points/lane

- B. One-way link has 1 conflict point/lane
- C. At intersections, add individual movements and multiply by table factor and lanes.

Given the above assumptions, conflict point analysis yielded the most efficient method of determining the number of conflict points (CP) for a given location type. Some typical examples of intersection conflict points are presented in Table 5.6.

Direction of	Right (R)	Through (T)	Left (L)	Conflict Points
Travel (DT)				(CPs)
Northbound	1	1	1	6
Southbound	1	1	1	6
Eastbound	1	1	1	6
Westbound	1	1	1	6
TOTAL				24

 Table 5.6 Typical Intersection Examples

NB = 2-way, SB = 2-way, EB = 2-way, WB = 2-way

Table 5.6 (Continued)

DT	R	Т	L	CPs
NB	1	1	1	6
SB	-	-	-	0
EB	-	1	1	5
WB	1	1	-	3
TOTAL				14

NB = 1-way, SB = n/a, EB = 2-way, WB = 2-way

DT	R	Т	L	CPs
NB	1	1	-	3
SB	-	-	-	0
EB	-	1	1	5
WB	-	-	-	0
TOTAL				8

NB = 1-way, SB = n/a, EB = 1-way, WB = n/a

Non-reportable (NR) and property damage (PD) accident classes carry little weight in determining the severity factor. Yet they account for almost 70% of the total accidents in New York City. One of the primary purposes of the CASIUS safety index is to provide a tool to reduce accidents, regardless of class, type or location. The accident frequency factor helps recognize the importance of the non-reportable and property damage accidents classes as indicators of unsafe conditions at specific locations. This factor ensures a proper safety evaluation where the accident experience is predominated by these two classes.

The preliminary basis for this factor are: percentage of total accidents which fall into these two classes, a minimum level of accidents, and the prevalence of certain accident types. The overriding purpose is to determine if the potential for more serious accidents exist.

An investigation of the overall average percentage of non reportable and property damage versus total accidents was conducted to get a sense of the normal range of expectation. This was joined by a similar review of average total accident experience. Then, a detailed analysis of accident types and their tendency towards certain levels of severity was integrated to form the basis of the accident frequency factor.

5.3 Application of CASIUS Program

The subject of this dissertation is unique for it deals with an urban area with complex traffic environments where pedestrian factors prevail. The CASIUS program, as an end result of the project, is a comprehensive safety analysis tool which includes possible accident variables at study locations. This user-friendly computer program provides a locationspecific accident frequency factor to reflect the safety environment of the intersection.

The required input variables include roadway type, traffic volume at the designated intersection, signal timing, conflict points, and crosswalk size. These five variables can be converted into a multiple curve fitting equation to produce an expected number of accidents and frequency factor. The multiple curve fitting equations are as following:

$$\sum X1 = aN + b\sum X2 + c\sum X3 + d\sum X4 + e\sum X5$$
(5.1)

$$\sum X1X2 = a\sum X2 + b\sum X2X2 + c\sum X2X3 + d\sum X2X4 + e\sum X2X5$$
(5.2)

 $\sum X1X3 = a \sum X3 + b \sum X3X2 + c \sum X3X3 + d \sum X3X4 + e \sum X3X5$ (5.3)

$$\sum X1X4 = a \sum X4 + b \sum X4X2 + c \sum X4X3 + d \sum X4X4 + e \sum X4X5$$
(5.4)

$$\sum X1X5 = a \sum X5 + b \sum X5X2 + c \sum X5X3 + d \sum X5X4 + e \sum X5X5$$
(5.5)

Where,

- X1: number of accidents
- X2: roadway type (arterial/arterial, arterial/local, local/local)
- X3: conflict point (refer to Tables 5.5 and 5.6)
- X4: signal timing (green time for the approach sec.)
- X5: crosswalk size (feet)
- N: total intersections

The value of a, b, c, d, and e can be obtained by solving equations 5.1 to 5.5. The final linear equation to produce an expected accident frequency X1 is:

$$X1 = a + bX2 + cX3 + dX4 + eX5$$
(5.6)

A default value is assigned by CASIUS for unknown variables. For example, if number of accidents is unknown, the other four variables of conflict point, crosswalk size, signal timing, and roadway type are to be applied for the above equation. However, the roadway type is a required input variable. The equation for the 202 sample intersections is:

$$X1 = 5.6474 + -0.19763X2 + 0.21628 X3 + 2.15198 X4 + 0.0017X5$$
(5.7)

A database file was made to accommodate the location data for the 202 study intersection, and Clipper 5 was used for programming. The end result of the study presents a good relationship between traffic volume and accident frequency. However, the roadway type does not show a strong relationship with the number of accidents. The CASIUS program has been applied to seven randomly-selected test locations, and the results are shown in Table 5.7.

		Conflict1 ^A		Conflict2 ^A		t2 ^A	Daily	X1		
Int.	Crosswalk	L	T	R	L	Т	R	Volume	Accidnt ^B	FF ^C
1	70:29	0	5	1	0	2	1	36753	79.82	7.31
2	70:29	1	3	0	0	3	1	32990	79.29	7.30
3	52:66	1	1	0	0	4	1	25624	57.20	6.75
4	31:26	0	2	1	1	2	1	7867	40.08	6.16
5	30:38	1	2	1	1	2	1	2021	29.05	5.62
6	45:30	0	2	1	1	5	0	7535	37.04	6.03
7	45:30	1	4	0	0	2	1	7484	34.81	5.92

Table 5.7 Application Results at Test Locations

^A Conflict points (see Tables 5.5 and 5.6) ^B Number of predicted accidents

^c Accident frequency factor
In Table 5.7, the second column (crosswalk) is the footage showing crosswalk length at the major and minor roadways. Conflict1 is the sum of conflict points on the major roadway and Confilict2 is that of the minor roadway. For example, for intersection 1 at Second Avenue and East 52nd Street in Manhattan, the main roadway (Second Avenue) has 5 through and one right turn lanes and the minor roadway (East 52nd Street) has 2 through and one right turn lanes. Left turns are prohibited on both approaches. Second Avenue is an arterial running north to south, and E. 52 Street is an one-way local street running east. The signal timing split for the intersection is 55 by 35 seconds, and the crosswalk distance or roadway width is 70 feet for the major and 29 feet for the minor roadway. The sum of automatic traffic recorder (ATR) volume (average daily traffic) is 36,753, and the number of predicted accidents was 79.82. The frequency factor obtained from the CASIUS program is 7.31. Test location two is the intersection of 2nd Avenue and E. 56 Street, with a traffic environment similar to location one, and produces a similar result of 79.29 accidents and a frequency factor of 7.30.

Location three is the intersection of 6th Avenue and 14th Street, where both roadway types are arterials. Sixth Avenue is a four-lane one way arterial running south, and 14th Street is a four-lane arterial running east and west, with two lanes in each direction. The number of accident at this intersection is predicted to be 57.20 and the frequency factor is 6.75. At Bleeker and Thompson Streets (location 4), the frequency factor is 6.16, which is similar to that of the previous intersection. However, the predicted accidents were 40.08, and this an unsignalized juncture of two local streets. Intersection 5, Bradhurst Avenue and W.

151 Street is also a juncture of two local streets and has the smallest number of accidents and frequency factor among all of test locations. Intersection 6, Dyckman and Payson Avenues, is a juncture of an arterial and a local street. However, the volume is considerably low (7,535) and the number of predicted accidents is 37.04. Location 7 is the intersection of Whitehall and Water Streets, where two local streets intersect. Traffic volume is 7,484, and the number of predicted accidents is 34.81. Overall, the accident rate is closely related to the size of traffic volume, but is reversely affected by the width of the roadway.

5.4 Function of the CASIUS PROGRAM

The program was prepared to calculate the expected number of accidents and frequency factor based on roadway type, traffic volume, conflict value, signal time, and crosswalk size. Regression analysis was employed to calculate the expected number of accidents.

1. Main Program

The main program takes input values from the user and stores them in ARRAY INVAL. ARRAY INVAL consists of INVAL(1)--traffic volume, INVAL(2)--conflict value, INVAL(3)--maximum signal time, and INVAL(4)--total length of crosswalk, INVAL(5) roadway type. The input for INVAL should be four variables. However, a variable could be omitted. In that case, its value will be calculated from the other available variables. For example, if variables of traffic volume, signal timing, and crosswalk size were provided as input to the program, expected conflict value would be calculated with given variables. After all the required input variables are available, subroutine EXPECT_ACC is called which calculates the expected number of accident.

2. Functions

CHECKRTYPE: Checks if the roadway type (AA, AL, LL) input is correct.

CHECKNUL: Checks and returns the number of input variables.

DEFAULT 1 (ARY, RTYPE): If the input data were three variables, these would be input as processing function, and ARY and RTYPE as input variables. Checks if variables of ARY are null. Stores the returned value in WHICH. Copies ARY value to XVAL and XVAL2.

DEFAULT-2 (ARY, RTYPE): This function is used to predict missing values when two input variables are null.

DEFAULT-3: This function is used to predict missing value when one input variable is null.

WHICHNULL: Checks which value is null, within ARRAY.

WHICHNULLM: Checks which value in sequence is null, and returns ARRAY WHICH. WHICHNOT: Checks which value in sequence is not null.

EXPECT-ACC: Calculates and returns expected number of accidents.

MULTI: Is used for DEFAULT 1,2,3, and produces the remaining variables based on the given parameters.

MULTI FUNCTION: Called with WHICH, XVAL, RTYPE. Using ARRAY RETVAL returned from MULTI, calculates the value which is passed as NULL(X = A + BX1 + CX2 + DX3). Returns ARY.

SIGMA: Calculates summation of given ARRAYs.

$$ARRAY[1] + ARRAY[2] + \dots ARRAY[N]$$
(5.8)

MSIGMA: Calculates multiplication of given ARRAYs.

$$ARRAY[1] * ARRAY[2] * ... ARRAY[N]$$
(5.9)

MYSIGMA: Multiplies the value of MULTI ARRAY with other given ARRAYs and returns the summation.

MATRIX: Multiplies two given MATRICES.

CHANGE: Exchanges the values in two given ARRAYs.

$$X[R1,i] <-> X[R2,i]$$
 (5.11)

CHANGEPM: Returns the field value which matches the given variable.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Summary

The objective of this study was to develop a methodology for measuring intersection safety performance in Manhattan. The major product of the study is a Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets (CASIUS) program. With the required input variables of roadway type, traffic volume, signal timing, conflict points, and crosswalk size, the safety performance of the subject intersection can be determined. A comprehensive literature search was conducted by both a manual and National Safety Council (NSC) library database search of pertinent highway safety related literature published since 1965. The literature review was composed of three major categories: 1) safety evaluation method, 2) pedestrian safety, and 3) accident cost. The main findings from the literature search was that most traffic safety studies deal with very wide regional safety or location/corridor-specific issues. Also found from the literature review was that most pedestrian studies focus on analysis of accident data, rather than pedestrian accident parameters or pedestrian trip generation exposures. As for accident cost, it was evident that any standard or uniform cost data were non-existent because of the differences between the concepts of economic cost, and value concept.

Data were collected and contributing factors to accidents were analyzed. Accident experience, vehicle counts, and inventories of intersections were quantified for 202 study intersections. The analyses of contributing factors included the parameters of; vehicle volume, traffic conflict point, signal timing, crosswalk dimension, roadway type, severity factor, and speed variance. With the above safety variables applied, pedestrian accidents were reviewed as an independent category.

The CASIUS user-friendly software program was developed to provide safety evaluations of urban intersections. This computer program consists of a database module and an analysis module and identifies locations with safety problems based on accident severity and frequency. The required input variables include roadway type, traffic volume at the designated intersection, signal timing, conflict points, and crosswalk size.

6.2 Conclusions

The computer program identified a close relationship between location hazardousness, roadway capacity, and traffic volume. The roadway capacity is a static analysis, and the actual demand of traffic volume is a dynamic analysis. The frequency factor includes a scale of 0 to 10.

6.3 Transferability of the Model

The CASIUS program, as a comparative tool for analyzing traffic safety, can be applied to other geographical locations as well. For example, the model could be applied to Chicago. However, a model calibration will have to be performed based on local data. Since it is mandatory for all local governments to maintain an accident database, the areawide data could be obtained, arrayed in the required format, and incorporated in the model. Similarly, other required data such as roadway type, traffic volumes, signal timings, etc. could be obtained form the responsible offices or the local traffic agencies. Next, the CASIUS program can be adjusted according to the size and characteristics of the subject study area.

6.4 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The project, a new and meaningful approach in the creation of an areawide safety index, may be limited in its ability to make safety predictions for Manhattan intersections. The 202 study intersections could be a biased sample because these are locations which were previously investigated and are likely to be affected by external factors more than randomly selected intersections.

Secondly, the accident-contributing factors such as the traffic conflict and or vehicle maneuvers, or the combination with traffic volume, are not very well represented in the computer program. Against its initial approach and analysis, the project could not include sufficiently all the factors associated with pedestrian exposure and involvement. Finally, the efficiency of the multiplication factor of accident and pedestrian severity is not well validated. Currently, the transportation agencies of many local governments do not have a good access to general accident data of state governments. Henceforth, the existing accident data from State governments need to be either connected to local transportation agencies through on-line systems or periodically updated to optical drives. The CASIUS program needs to be further development to accommodate the accident characteristics of the local area. In that case, both groups of study intersections and total population of intersections can be compared with each other, through the scaling of the area total accident rate.

A computerized safety program is recommended for future development, which will be able to produce intersection simulations for safety and present an hourly variation of traffic demand of intersections.

APPENDIX A

NEW YORK STATE CLASS ACCIDENT DATA

JAN-DEC, 1989

NEU YORK COUNTY

STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES Summary of motor vehicle accidents

PAGE 1 OF 6 . HV-144A(01/79)

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STATE OF NEW YORK DEPART Summary of hotor v		CONTRIBUTING FACTORS*	TOTAL FACTORS		ALCOHOL INVOLVEMENT	BACKING UNSAFELY	DRIVER JHATTENTION	DRIVER INEXPERIENCE	DRUGSI ILLEGAL >	FAILURE TO VIELD R.O.W.	FELL ASLEEP	FOLLOWING TOO CLOSELY	ILLNESS	LOST CONSCIOUSNESS	PASSENGER DISTRACTION	PASSING/LANE USAGE IMPROPER	PEDESTRIAN ERRON/CONFUSION	BRYETTAT HYEAKTITY	PRESCIPTION REDICATION	TRAFFIC CONTROL DISAEGARDED	TURRING IMPROPERLY	UNSAFE SPEED	UNSAFE LANE CHANGING				
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TABLE 14(P) LIGHT CONDITIONS

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JAN-DEC. 1989

STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES Summary of motor vehicle accidents

PAGE 4 OF 6 MV-1444(01/70)

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NEW YORK COUNTY

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EFFECTIVE WITH SEPTEMBER 1. 1985 ACCIDENTS. THE PROPERTY DAMAGE REPORTING LEVEL WAS INCREASED FROM 400 DOLLARS TO 600 DOLLARS

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STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTMENT OF HOTOR VEHICLES SUINIARY OF NOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTS

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APPARENT ACCIDENT Contributing Factors-				
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++MORE THAN I CONTRIBUTING PEDESTRIAN FACTOR PER ACCIDENT MAY OCCUR.

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OF MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT 2002 NEN ĥ STATE PAGE S OF 6

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PAGE 1 OF 6 STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTHENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES HV-144A101/79) Summary of motor vehicle accidents

NEW YORK COUNTY

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NOTE*SOME OF THE TABLES ARE E Received From Police And Loton Vility of Souther	BY A "(P)"	INCLUDED UNLESS SPECIFIC	*PERCENTS MAY NOT TOTAL		TABLE 2	STATEUIDE RATES PI	MOTOR VEHICLE DEATHS	DEATH RATE/100 MIL VEH WI	I FATAL ACC/100 MIL VED AT	BEATH RATE / 100,000 POP	INJURY RATE / 100,000 POP I		
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IDENTS	H41-01	242	101	0.7	51	07	107	32	13
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ACCIDEN	10-1PH	602	30	Bo	112	30	\$2		94
STRIAN	7-10	103	17	101	00	82	26	26	39
PEDE	6-7	99	8	51	ล			16	12
	1-4AM	165	5	0	\$2	22	22	24	36
-	TOTAL	4364	250	628	206	672	692	773	54.5
TABLE 25	DAY	TOTAL	SUTUAT	HUILDAY	TUESDAY	NEUNESUAY	1 HURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDA /

	FATAL	
	TOTAL	
,	FATAL	
S	TOTAL	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4
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ARENCE	FATAL	
OF OCCU	TOTAL	היובירה האיניבומני מיורי היוחי אויירי איירי א איירי איירי איי
UAY I	FATAL	
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TOTAL	ACC.	nolamionikhuun hia uviauunuokulat
TOTAL	ACC.	אוייאיאיאיניאיאט איייאיאיאייאייאייאייאייאייאייאייאייאייא
TABLE 26 Hourd And	DAY OF OCURRENCE	ROAD IZ HIGHTGHT Phoon Z Phoon

EFFECTIVE WITH SEPTEMBER 1, 1985 ACCIDENTS, THE PROPERTY DAMAGE REPORTING LEVEL WAS INCREASED FROM 400 DOLLARS TO 600 DOLLARS.

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	AGE 2 OF 6 IV-144A(01/79)	STATE OF NEW YORK DEPART Suthary of Hotor V	MENT OF	CCIDEN	5		NEW YORK	COUNTY						1991		
	TARIE 1	WEATHER	TOTAL A		SEVERI	LASS	OF ACC.	1 A B I E 11		ETDET EVENT		TOTAL A	SI. SI	EVERITY	CLASS OI	F ACC.
			NUHBER	PCT .	ATAL F	PERS INJ	PROP DAM			OF ACCIDENT	-	UMBER	CT. F	ATAL PER	Id T'NI S	ROP DAH
		Tolat	29693	100-0	5	15212	4531		IQIAL_OC	CIDEULS.		20003	0.00	22	21221	4522
		CLCUDY BALFUDY	2365	2.1		1573			DINER MO	NOR VEHICLE		140201	10.00	121	15155	1350
			192	101	Ħ	136			DEVELUE			15531	;;;	17	1253	
		SCEET / HALL/FREEZING RAIN	30		F	212				TRAIN			0.0 00		5	
		UNSPECIFIED	12021	8.2	Ť	719	496		DTHER OB	JECT (NOT FIX	<u>0</u>		8.0		137	26
	TABLE 4	IQIAL	22603	190.0	28	15212	4521		LIGHT SU	UPDURTY UFIXED	PBJEET	122	0.3	1	492	197
	RDWAY SURFACE		12217	20.01	24	11/00	800		CRASH CU	SHION		1257) , i 0	1	111	1
	NOTITINO	SIOUZICE	1951	1.01		134	280		SIGN POS	1		33	0.0		32	
		SLUSH OTHER	42	20		20			BUILDING CURATNG	17MALL		89	3	- 	99 1 1	202
		UNSFECTFIED	1654	<u><u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u></u></u>		700	946		FENCE			20	0.0			
	TABLE S	IOLAL BOUNES	20603	100.0	95	15917	4523			HEAD WALL		101	20		9 J	310
	JURISDICTIONAL	COUNTY ROUTES		0.0	Ť	0			SNOW ENH	IARTER	T		00	$\frac{1}{1}$		26
	ROAD SYSTEM	TOWN ROUTES	18040	<u>9-9</u>	F.	2121	20002		EARTH EN	BANK/ROCK CU	T/DTTCH	21			B	3
		PARKWAYS	TYZI	9.9	12	1297	212		OTHER FI	XED OBJECT		1351	<u>, i k</u>	₽	βĬ	1.1
		RGR THRAY		0.0			Ī		HON-COLL	ISION		179	ê. 0	~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~	167	10
Market Filter TANL 6 Market Filter Task Market Filter		OTHER INTERSTATE	770	3.7	~	25	340		OVER TURN	IED I OS YON		36	2.0	2	32	
TARE TARE <th< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>SUBHERSI</td><td>ON</td><td></td><td></td><td>, , ,</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></th<>									SUBHERSI	ON			, , ,			
TARK 6 TARK 7 TARK 7<		UNSPECIFIED	58	n. D	1	25	33		UTHER	ROADWAY OHLY		140	6.0		133	
Tonnetic	TABLE 6	I RONE	20603	31.8	5	15212	1339		UNSPECTE	TED			0.0			
Instruction Instruction <thinstruction< th=""> <thinstruction< th=""></thinstruction<></thinstruction<>	TRAFFIC	TRAFFIC SIGNAL	10124	1.01	5	8491	15/2	TABLE 12 A	I glat at	ELDENTSAT IN	TEBSECT	20693	19.92	54	121221	1833
Non-training Non-train Non-training Non-training <td></td> <td>FLASHING LIGHP</td> <td>25</td> <td>T.</td> <td>1</td> <td>12</td> <td>×34</td> <td>LOCATION</td> <td>S Itie LE</td> <td>EH ACC NOT A</td> <td>TINTER</td> <td>2263</td> <td>1.0</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td>		FLASHING LIGHP	25	T.	1	12	×34	LOCATION	S Itie LE	EH ACC NOT A	TINTER	2263	1.0			
1 1		OFFICERAGUARD	672 K					OF CULLISION	THO VEH	ACC NOT AT 1	N ER *	4754	23.1	12	2727	2023
Inite Init Init </td <td></td> <td>RN CROSSING CONTROL</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>1</td> <td></td> <td>3 08 10</td> <td>E VEH NOT AT</td> <td>INTERS</td> <td>765</td> <td>4.4</td> <td>3 73</td> <td>772</td> <td>198</td>		RN CROSSING CONTROL					1		3 08 10	E VEH NOT AT	INTERS	765	4.4	3 73	772	198
TALE Displetration Jobsection		HIGHWAY WORK AREA	78	2. 20	F	762	31		TOTAL TL	IO VEHICLE AC	CIDENTS	12368	100.0	16	0262	0405
TABLE 7 TABLE 7 <t< td=""><td></td><td>UNSPECIFIED</td><td>3040</td><td>14.8</td><td>Nm</td><td>1613</td><td>1222</td><td>TABLE 12 B</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td> -</td><td></td></t<>		UNSPECIFIED	3040	14.8	Nm	1613	1222	TABLE 12 B							-	
CHARACTER Statisticity Statisticity <td>TABLE 7</td> <td>IOIAL AND EVEL</td> <td>22693</td> <td>2.99.2</td> <td>35</td> <td>27857</td> <td>1222</td> <td>HANNER OF COLLI</td> <td>NOIS</td> <td>TEAR END</td> <td>1</td> <td>6183</td> <td>33.8</td> <td></td> <td>3206</td> <td>119</td>	TABLE 7	IOIAL AND EVEL	22693	2.99.2	35	27857	1222	HANNER OF COLLI	NOIS	TEAR END	1	6183	33.8		3206	119
Панк с Политися	ROADHAY	STRATCHT AND CRADE				2/8	2002	TAL OF NUL AL	NEK		1					
Table 6 TORNE AT THE TERE 6 TORNE AT THE TERE 7 TORNE AT THE AT THE TERE 7 TORNE AT THE AT THE AT THE TERE 7 TORNE AT THE AT TH		CURVE AND LEVEL	127	101						DVERTAKING	1	2944	23.8		1353	1590
Table 6 Total 2 Total 2 <thtotal 2<="" th=""> <thtotal 2<="" th=""> <thtotal 2<="" th=""></thtotal></thtotal></thtotal>		CURVE AT HILLCREST		1:0	Ĭ					i						
THE OF DAY 10/201 10/201 10/201 10/201 10/201 10/201 10/201 10/201 10/201 10/201 10/201 2000 2000 2000 1		IONSFELTED	2612	5		054	1202			LEFT TURN		1082	8.7		147	284
1 1 <td></td> <td>I VIAL - 4 AH</td> <td>1306</td> <td>2.9 2.9</td> <td>1</td> <td>10201</td> <td>1991</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td>		I VIAL - 4 AH	1306	2.9 2.9	1	10201	1991									
1 1 2047 10.0 5 10.7 303 1		7 . 10 2 . 10 2 . 10 2 . 10				1221	544			LEFT TURN	シ	648	2		833	200
1 1			3694	17.90	, T	2878	792									
Indext Indext <td></td> <td></td> <td>27.2</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>222</td> <td>800</td> <td></td> <td><u></u></td> <td>VIGHT ANGLE</td> <td>ī,</td> <td>2047</td> <td>16.6</td> <td><u>س</u></td> <td>1679</td> <td>363</td>			27.2			222	800		<u></u>	VIGHT ANGLE	ī,	2047	16.6	<u>س</u>	1679	363
TABLE 9(P) JOAR JAR JOAR JOAR JAR JOAR JOAR JAR		UISPECIFIED	5113	5.9		415	505									
COLICE GGENCY COUNTY DUITE COULCE GOUNTY DUITE COLICE GOUNTY DUITE COLICE 0.6 43 28 Investigative Duite HERD ON 10.6 45 12001 1752 10.6 43 28 Investigative Duite HERD ON 10.6 45 12001 1252 12001 1252 28 Investigative Duite 1018 100.0 16520 12070 16520 12070 16520 12070 16520 12070 16520 12070 16520 12070 17 100 0.8 15 Inale Ion Of Differentie 1018 1018 1018 1106 0.8 15 16 15 16	TABLE 9(P)	IOTAL FOLYEE	16220	109-8	22	10071	1252			TGHI TURN	י ר	355	5.9	1	165	189
Intele Intele Intelester <	FOLICE AGENCY	COUNTY FOLICE	16728		Ď	12,001	1955			NULL THOM		7			r v	Ċ
TABLE 10(P) TOTAL TOTAL 104 0.8 89 15 LOCATION OF OH BUANY AT INTERSECTION 16220 109.9 85 49001 1252 45001 1252 126		UNSPECIFIED		0.0		10021	47.14					;	5	+	3	N I
LOCATION OF DUPUT NOT AT INTERSECT 572 34.3 35 433 73 493 759 759 759 759 759 759 759 759 759 759	TABLE 10(P)	TOIAL NOVAY AT INTERSECTION	16220	199.9	55	18991	1252			HEAD ON	1	104	0.B		89	15
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ALL OTHER 0 609 5.6 6 334 349														-		
									<u> </u>	ALL OTHER		689	5.6	•	334	349

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JAN-DEC.1991

NEW YORK COUNTY

STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES Summary of Motor Vehicle Accidents

. PAGE 3 OF 6 MV-144A(01/79)

F ACC.		2011 2017 2017 2017 2017 2017 2017 2017		JTHER 2
TOTAL SEVERITY CLASS O NUMBER PCT. FATAL PERS INJ P	20 20 20 20 20	400 12 12 12 400 12 12 12 12 400 12 12 12 12 400 12 12 12 12 400 12 12 12 12 400 12 12 12 12 400 12 12 12 12 400 12 12 12 12 400 12 12 12 12 400 13 12 12 12 400 13 12 12 12 400 13 12 12 12 400 13 12 12 12 400 13 12 12 12 400 13 12 12 12 400 13 13 12 12 400 13 13 12 12 4	SEVERITY CLASS OF PED. ACC. NUNBER PCT. FATAL PERS INJ. (1364 1399 139.2 44 43 43 43 43 43 43 43 43 43 43 43 43	NUMBER PCT. FATAL PERS INJ 2204 129-0 81 1:5 2204 129-0 1 1:5 2204 129-0 23-2 21.0
DRIVER SEX And Age		ZOLA HAVEHICLES ZOLA HAVEHIC LAK BUOURDENT FEAK BUOURDENT BUOURDENT BUOURDENT BUOURDENT CONTOC TRAILER TOWNOORD OCHICLE AND FEATELER AND FEATELER AND FEATELER AND FEATELER	DIRECTION OF VEHICLE STRIKING PEDESTRIAN IOIA VEHICLES IOIA VEHICLES IOIAING RIGHT TUBHING LEFT DARANG OTHER	CONTRIBUTING FACTOR*** 1018L EALTORS HAME CNTL DEVICE DISREGAND HAME CNTL DEVICE DISREGAND DRUGGIT LEGAL HEDSCATTON) DRUGGIT LEGAL HEDSCATTON) DRUGGIT LEGAL HEDSCATTON) HIGE CONTRINCT
TABLE 15		TABLE 16 VEHICLE TVPE*	TABLE 17	HOVING
S OF ACC.		0 1 2 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2		
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TOTAL UMBER P		4190000001313 K		10071272 10071272 10071272 10071272 10071272 1007127 100717 100717 100717 100717 10
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TABLE 13(P)	FACTOR NOR MORI FACTOR NOR MORI THAN ONE CONTRUETEN FACTOR PEER ACI HAY OCCUR.			TABLE 14(P) CONDITIONS

**HORE THAN I CONTRIBUTING PEDESTRIAN FACTOR PER ACCIDENT HAY OCCUR.

JAN-DEC.1991

18LE 19	TOTAL						AGE					Π	S	*	SEVERI	ע כר ס	INJ.
VENT DENT	CASUALTIES	0-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 AND OVER	UNSPEC	MALE	FEMALE	A	8	υ
HICLE	25109	200	23255	2007 2007 2007 2007 2007 2007 2007 2007	1100	22402	6032 6495 6897 10422	5252 2021 2021 2021	2242 2156 1021 453	12551	1020	1201 1151 820 255	13161 13161 73267 2599	0261 5892 1822	2169 2015 779	555710 555710 775710 775710	12021
	4 4 5621			5	137	268	695	152	6 <u>0</u>	25	OT	59	1153			392	725
EXED ODJECI	500 T			7	199	22	1000	200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200	251	550	21	222	221 339 339	5 5 6 7 5 7 5 7 5 7 5 7 5 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	126	245	115
<u>Y 08LY</u>	677I					16	55	41 I	12		50	21	29	6	52	34	12 P
NICLE									00-10			mm m				LES UNS	PECIFIE
50	TOT PEDEST	RIANS						AGE					Η	Ű	3EX	H	SEV. CL
	NALLELU VA		-	_			_										

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CLAS	NI	300	31-10				
SEV.	KILLE	-100	9				
	UNSPEC						
SEX	FEMALE	1205	1995				366 T 10 96 T
	MALE	2657	2652	Messices S e S	21220024 21220024 21220024		1150 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000
	UNSPEC	262 109 78	2622		0-1325		8777 RV-0
	65 AND OVER	100 100 100 100 100	200	52 51	1 3135 310m		
	55-64	102	22 22 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 2		16		20 16 1
	45-54	565 134	2007	90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 9	232		21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 2
	35-44	226	2261	24 24 13 13	90 92 72 1		41 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10
AGE	25-34	305	1328 1328 138 138 138	222			200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200
	20-24	500 301 107	0 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3		22		1100/250
	15-19	125	215 250 250 150		100		1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
	91-01	243 144 99	243		5 S S S		
	5-9	\$11 \$25	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	2 7 1	10		
	0-4	58 39 28	NC 3 27	1			
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TABLE 20	PEDESTRIAN LOCATION AND ACTIONS	IOTAL RESECTION	1014L ACIZOUS COUSSING LAIN STRAKE COUSSING. JAINS F SIGNAL COUSSING. JOS SIGNAL ARREED FOR STRAKE COUSSING. NO SIGNAL OR TROSSBALK	WALP IN A TOTA WAT WAT WAT HAPFIC WALP IN A TOTA WAT WAT WAT HAPFIC HART A GOID HART WAT WAT HAPFIC CONTRACT CONTRACT OF A TOTA CONTRACT OF A CONTRACT OF A TOTAL OF A TOTAL CONTRACT OF A CONTRACT OF A TOTAL OF A TOTAL OF A TOTAL OF A TOTAL CONTRACT OF A CONTRACT OF A TOTAL O	БСАТІЮТА ОНЕЯ АСТОЮЗТИ ВОДОЧАТ 101 Н. ВОДОЙАТИ ВОДОЧАТ 1015 РЕСТЕТЕО	TABLE 21 PRE-ACCIDENT BICYCLE ACTION	COING SIGATOHT AHEAD INALING SIGATOHT AHEAD INALIAS SIGNICEFTOUTURN SIGAT SUCKTING SIGN 101 IAAFFTC COLOGING LIGUES SIGN 101 IAAFFTC

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NEW YORK COUNTY STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTHENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES Suthiary of hotor vehicle accidents

6 STATE OF NEW YORK 79) SUNNARY OF N	DEPARTMENT OF MOTO OTOR VEHICLE ACCIO	DENTS	S	NEU Y	ояк соц	7117						IAU	1-DEC.15	164	
TABLE 22(P)	TOTAL DRIVERS			MALE	DRIVERS						FEHAL	E DRIVE	25		
APPARENT DRIVER CONTRIEUTING FACTOR	UNSPECIFIED SEX) NUMBER PERCENT	TOTAL (INC UNSPEC	UNDER	18-20	1-24	55-39	40-59	50 AND OVER	TOTAL (INC UNSPEC	UNDER	18-20	21-24	25-39	20-59 F	OVER OVER
101 BL DELVERS	20954 199.0	21265	577	305	2345	19635	3256	1251	3554	26	164	400 241	1621	819 819	205
	CONTRIB FACTOR				Π										
TOTAL CONTRIBUTING FACTORS	PERCENT OF TOTAL 16210 DRIVERS	22521	25	220		62355	\$\$0E	650	\$ E 91	2	102	587	262	292	22
BACKING UNSAFELY	2508	330	1 or	17	200	162	513	119	250	ri i	1	292	125	99 99	P
DRIVER INEXPERIENCE	231 0.8 37 0.8	186	\$ \$	10	30	3 3 8	23		9 T 0 T	3 7		\$ ¢	313	~ 0	
POLICATING TOO CLOSELY		1378	F	175		662	347	rviok	201		1-01			re.	
LÖST CONSCIOUSNESS PASSTNG/LANE USAGE THPROPER PHISICAL DISABILITY		20	5	IS	285	259	126.50	10/0/0	22.2		3 82	B	202	T OT	0
PRESCRIPTION MEUICATION TRAFFIC CONTROL UISREGARDED TURNING INDROPERLY TURNING SEEER		799	257	195 2013	90 15	208	178	12	1 201 201	FF	ror	EFF	m an	122	BOL
UNSAFE LANE CHANGING	755 757 2508 16.1	3522		14.94	343	1770	144	200	7 <u>3</u> 566		24	59	278	148	32
SINCE THERE HAY BE NO CONTR	LIBUTING FACTOR OR	NORE THA	N ONE C	ONTRIBUT	LING FA	сток, р	ERCENTS	HAY NO	T TOTAL	TO 100.	0				
TABLE 23(P) VIOLATION CHARGED	TOTAL DRIVERS (INCLUDES UNSPECIFIED SEX)	TOTAL INC UNSPEC AGE 1	UNDER 10	18-20	51-24	55-39	40-59	60 AND OVER	TOTAL (INC UNSPEC AGE)	UNDER	18-20	21-24	25-39	40-59	60 AND OVER
UITAL BRIVERS TION	25953 187 289-8	10865 10865	115	623 689	2144	19815	\$359	1251	3554	26	165	565	1563	\$16	195
	VIOLATIONS														
I PER VICOLATIONS	DERCENT OF TOTAL 3342 DRIVERS*	3004	35	232	504	1605	524	29	326	7	TE	5	1631	5	٩
DWILLINGXICATION) DGATCABILITY INPAIRED-ALCHT DVALLABILITY INPAIRED-DRUGT	200 200 200 200 200	90 10 10		~	51	52	23	4							
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PASSED STOP SIGN PASSED RED LIGHT INTHOPER PASSING/LANE USAGE		20 20 10 10			101									2	
LILLEGAL TURN FAILED TO VIELD R.O.W. FOLLONITHG TOO CLOSELV	17 2.0 0.0 0.0	5°76		~		Non							F		
BACKIRIS URSAFELY PASSED SIOPPED SCHOOL BUS	5-00 5-00 5-00	8				2 2	F	1							
ALL OTHER UNSFECTFIED	3026 10.6	2703	52	207	12	1447	9 495	70	309	-	er F	58	155	5 1 3	
SINCE THERE MAY BE NO VIOL	ATION OR HORE THAN	I ONE VIOI	ATION.	PERCENT	S HAY N	101 101	IL TO 10	0.0							ĺ
TABLE 24 TIME OF DAY	TOTAL DRIVERS (INCLUDES UNSPECIFIED SEX	TOTAL CINC UNSPEC	UNDER 18	18-20	21-24	25-39	40-59	60 AND OVER	TOTAL (INC UNSPEC AGE)	UNDER 18	18-20	21-24	25-39	40-59	60 AND OVER
IDIAL DRIVERS	35221 100.0	26220	511	116	2499	12812	2322	1222	213	20	121	505 57	2026	1312	223
<u>й - 10 - 1 рн</u>			100		1003	2021	1005	330	558 648 8648	Nich		10 m	276	202	100
2 - 7 7 - 10 10 - 1 - 10	4612	3476	33	1212	13	1711	1283	320	065		36		2000	289	×3101
UNSFECTFIED	1577	3	2-	34	- 44	1205	266	195	225	2	29	20	002	30	21

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PAGE 6 OF 6 MV-144A101/79)	TATE OF NE	W YORK D RV OF HO	EPARTME	NT OF MC	TOR VEH	ICLES	34	и уояк	COUNTY	İ		ļ		İ	:	JAN-DEC	.1991		0000	202
										фа а мата аста сон			E C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C				(F) RIPTION HOST SE PLAZUL ARHZHATI ARHZHATI ARHZHATI ARHZHATI FOOT FOOT FOOT FOOT FOOT FOOT FOOT FO			
TABLE 2919) TABLE 2919) EQUIPHENT USED 101 AL TAPTES LAP BELT AND HARNESS LAP BELT AND HARNESS	10101000000000000000000000000000000000			CLASS 244 244 244 244 244 244 244 244 244 2	0F VEHIC 320099 52 /34/30099 52 /34/300	ССС ССС ССС ССС ССС ССС ССС ССС	NINU NINU 261 261 1262 11262 11265 1		TURNER THE THE THE THE THE THE THE THE	TICLUDE TICLUDE TICLUDE TICLUDE TICLUDE TICLUDE TICLUDE		FLACERA UNCONSCIERA NABLE 1 N HEAD , AR VUNC COMPLA	ABRASICAUL	SERVENCE EN TOKEN ACCTAKEN ACCTAKEN ANNS, TOKEN ANNS,			DING TILISE TILISE TILISE TILISE TILISE TILISE			
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APPARENT VEHI	P) CULAR	TOT	٩٢					VEHICLE	TYPE	THCLUDE	S PRESE			AK ANU	IEWEK PL	VEHICLE	AGE			
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IOLAL PEFECTAIS ACCELEDEFECTAS ACCELEDEFECTAS BACKESTOREECTIVE BACKESTOREECTIVE BACKESTOREECTIVE BACKESTOREECTIVE BACKESTOREECTIVE SIEGRING SIEGRING SIEGRIN SIEGRINE SIEGRIN SIEG	CTIVE DEQUATE HARGED							20 77				370 II 07					N 3 TROMO O	A Wester	21 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200	

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APPENDIX B

CASIUS SAFETY-EVALUATION PROGRAM

#Include "box.ch"
#Include "inkey.ch"

Local V := Space(6) Local L1 := Space(6),R1 := Space(6),T1 := Space(6) Local L2 := Space(6),R2 := Space(6),T2 := Space(6) Local L3 := Space(6),R3 := Space(6),T3 := Space(6) Local L4 := Space(6),R4 := Space(6),T4 := Space(6)

```
Local P1 := Space(6),P2 := Space(6),P3 := Space(6)
Local S1 := Space(6),S2 := Space(6)
Local Rtype := Space(2)
```

Local inval[4], nullnum Local Eaccident,Errnul := .f. Local i

Use trfvol New

Set Confirm On

While .T.

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Cls @ 1.1.24.79BOX B_DOUBLE @ 3.17 SAY " Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets" @ 6.10 SAY " Rtype : " Get Rtype Valid Checkrtype(rtype) @ 7.10 Say " Traffic Volume : " Get V

@ 9,10 Say "Conflict Value"
@ 10.i0 Say "Left : " Get L1
@ 10.30 Say "Thru : " Get T1
@ 10.50 Say "Right: " Get R1
@ 11.10 Say "Left : " Get L2
@ 11.30 Say "Thru : " Get T2
@ 11.50 Say "Right: " Get R2
@ 12.10 Say "Left : " Get L3
@ 12.50 Say "Right: " Get R3
@ 13.10 Say "Left : " Get T4
@ 13.50 Say "Right: " Get R4

@ 15.10 Say "Signal Time :"

@ 16,10 Say "Ph 1 : " Get P1 @ 16.30 Say "Ph 2 : " Get P2 @ 16,50 Say "Ph 3 : " Get P3 @ 18.10 Say "Crosswalk Size" @ 19,10 Say "Size1: " Get S1 @ 19.50 Say "Size2: " Get S2 @ 22.10 Say "Expected Accident : " @ 23.10 Say "Frequency Factor : " Read If Lastkey() = K ESCReturn Nil Endif inval[1] = Val(V)inval[2] = Val(L1) * 2 + Val(T1) + Val(R1) +;Val(L2) * 2 + Val(T2) + Val(R2) +;Val(L3) * 2 + Val(T3) + Val(R3) + :Val(L4) * 2 + Val(T4) + Val(R4)inval[3] = Max (Val(P1), Val(P2)) inval[3] = Max (inval[3], Val(P3)) inval[4] := Val(S1) + Val(S2)nullnum =CheckNul(inval) Do Case Case nullnum = 1Default_1(inval.Rtype) Case nullnum =2Default_2(inval.Rtype) Case nullnum =3Default_3(inval,Rtype) Case nullnum =4Errnul := .T.

EndCase

.-

If ! Erraul

```
Eaccident := Expact_Acc(inval)
```

Endif

(ψ 22.34 Say Eaccident If Eaccident = 1 ψ 23.24 Say "1" Else ψ 23.34 Say 1.67 * Log(Eaccident) Endif

AFill(inval.0)

V :=space(6)

inkey(0)

```
R1 :=space(6)
L1 := Space(6)
T1 := Space(6)
R2 := space(6)
L2 := Space(6)
T2 := Space(6)
R3 :=space(6)
L3 := Space(6)
T3 = Space(6)
R4 = space(6)
L4 := Space(6)
T4 := Space(6)
p1 := Space(6)
P2 := Space(6)
P3 := Space(6)
S1 := Space(6)
S2 := Space(6)
Rtype := Space(2)
Errnul := .f.
```

Enddo

Function Checkrtype(Rtype)

Do Case

•

```
case rtype = "AA"
Ret := .T.
Case Rtype = "AL"
Ret := .T.
Case Rtype = "LL"
Ret := .T.
```

Endcase

Return Ret

. .

```
Local Nullnum :=0,i
```

```
For i = 1 to Len(ary)
```

If Ary[i] = 0Nullnum + =1 Endif

Next

.•

Return Nullnum

Local Which,Retval[6] Local Xval[3],Xval2[3],Xpos:=1

```
Which := WhichNull(Ary)
```

For i: = Ito Len(Ary)

If Ary[i] !=0 Xval[xpos] :=i Xval2[xpos] :=i Next

Retval := Multi(Which, xval, Rtype)

```
Ary[Which] :=Retval[1] + retval[2] * Ary[Xval2[1]] + Retval[3] *:
Ary[Xval2[2]] + Retval[4] * Ary[Xval2[3]]
```

```
Return Ary
```

. . . .

```
Local Which[2].Notnul[2]
Local Xval1[2].Xval2[2].Xval3[3].Temp[3]
Local Retary1[2].Retary2[2].retx1[6].Retx2[6]
Local i,Xpos :=1,nul
```

```
Which := WhichNullM(Ary)
```

```
For i: = Ito Len(Ary)
```

```
If Ary[i] !=0

Xval1[xpos] :=i

Xval2[xpos] :=i

Xval3[xpos] :=i

Xpos +=1

Endif
```

Next

```
For i = 1 to 2
```

```
Nul := Which[i]
Retx1 := Multi(Nul,Xval1,Rtype)
Retary1[i] := Retx1[1] + Retx1[2] * Ary[Xval2[1]] +;
Retx1[3] * Ary[Xval2[2]]
Asize(Xval1,2)
Afill(Xval1,0)
Acopy(Xval2,Xval1)
```

Next

e

```
Asize(Xval2,3)
Notnul := Whichnot(ary)
For i = 2 to 1 Step -1
      Nul := Which[3-i]
      Xval2[3] := Which[i]
      Acopy(Xval2,Temp)
      Retx2 = Multi(Nul,Temp,Rtype)
      Retary 2[3-i] := Retx 2[1] + Retx 2[4] * Retary 1[i] +;
                         Retx2[2] * Ary[Xval2[1]] +:
                            Retx2[3] * Ary[Xval2[2]]
      Afill(Xval2.0)
      Acopy(Xval3,Xval2)
      Asize(temp.3)
      Afill(temp,3)
Next
Ary[Which[1]] = (Retary1[1] + Retary2[1]) / 2
Ary[Which[2]] :=(retary1[2] +Retary2[2]) / 2
Return Arv
Function Default 3(Ary,Rtype)
Local Xval[1]
Local Temary[4]
Local Which[3]
Local Result[3,4]
Local retary1[3]
Local Retx1[6],retx2[6]
Local Retary[3]
Local Xval1[1].vval2[1]
Local Xtotal :=0
Local i.j.k
Local Xpos :=1
Local Nul,Xv1,xv2
Which := WhichNullM(Ary)
For i := 1to Len(Ary)
```

```
lf Ary[i] !=0
Xv1 :=i
Endif
```

Next

```
For i = 1 to 3
```

```
Nul := Which[i]

Xv2 = Xv1

Retx1 := Multi(Nul, Xv2. Rtype)

Retary[i] := retx1[1] + Retx1[2] * Ary[Xv1]

Afill(Retx1,0)
```

Next

For i = 1 to 3

```
Acopy(ary,temary)
Temary[Which[i]] :=Retary[i]
Temary :=Default_2(Temary,Rtype)
For k:=1 to 4
Result[i,k] :=Temary[k]
Next
```

```
ſ
```

Next

```
Afill(tempary.0)
```

For i = 1 to 4

For j: = 1 to 3 Xtotal + =Result[j,i] Next

Temary[i] :=Xtotal/3

```
Xtotal =0
```

Next

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```
For i: =1 to 3
Ary[Which[i]] :=Temary[Which[i]]
Next
```

4

Return Ary

5

```
Function Whichnull(Ary)
For i = 1 to 4
   If Ary[i] = 0
      Exit
   Endif
Next
return i
Function WhichnullM(Arv)
Local Which := {}
For i = 1 to 4
   If Ary[i] = 0
      Asize(which, Len(Which) + 1)
      Which[Len(Which)] := i
   Endif
Next
Return Which
Function WhichNot(ary)
Local Which := {}
For i = 1 to 4
  If Ary[i] != 0
     Asize(which, Len(Which) + 1)
     Which[Len(Which)] := i
  Endif
Next
```
Return Which

Function Expact [acc(val)] Local Ret ret := 5.6474 + val[4] + 0.19763 + val[3] + 0.21628 + ;val[2] * 2.15198 +val[1] * 0.0017 If Ret <0Ret := 1Endif Return Ret Function Multi(Which.Xval.Rtype) Local $y := \{\}.x[4.300].temp := \{\}, pam := \{0,0,0,0\}$ Local yy[6],xv Local typ :=tp :=acc :=recont1 :=recont2 :=terr :=0.totalpam Local p1:=space(1),p2:=space(1),p3:=space(1),p4:=space(1) Local yval:=space(1) Local rt.en .i.j Do case

Case Rtype = "AA" rt := 29 Case Rtype = "AL" rt := 48 Case Rtype = "LL" rt := 24

Endcase

.

If Valtype(Xval) = "N" xv := xvalEndif

pam :=changepm(Xval)

```
recont1 + =1
Endif
```

trtvol - > (dbskip(1))

next

```
For j := 1 to totalpam
```

trfvol->(dbskip(1))

Next

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asize(x[j].recont2) Recont2 :=0

```
yy :=static(x,y,totalpam)
acc := 0
yval :=space(1)
p1 := space(1)
p2 := space(1)
p3 := space(1)
p4 := space(1)
Asize(pam,4)
Afill(pam,0)
Asize(y, 0)
terr :=0
tp := 0
acc :=0
Return yy
Function static(xx,yy,pemleng)
Local x[5][5], y := \{\}, tmp := \{\}
Local total :=0.i.j
Asize(y.pemleng+1)
Afill(y.0)
**For i = 1 to pemleng + 1
     aadd(y,0)
Next*/
Asize(x, pemleng + 1)
For i = 1 to pemleng + 1
     asize(x[i], pemleng + 1)
Next
x[1,1] := len(xx[1])
Aeval(yy.{|a \downarrow otal + =a})
y[1] := total
For i = 1 to pemleng
```

```
x[i+1,1]:=sigma(xx,i)
x[1,i+1]:=sigma(xx,i)
y[i+1]:=mYsigma(xx,yy,i)
```

For i: =1 to pemleng

```
For j:=1 to pemleng
x[i+1,j+1] = msigma(xx,i,j)
Next
```

Next

matrix(x,y)

return y

```
For j:=1 to len(x[1])
total +=x[i,j]
Next
```

Return total

For a: =1 to len(x[i]) total +=x[i,a] * x[j,a] Next

Return total

For a := 1 to len(x[i])

```
total + = x[i,a] * y[a]
Next
Return total
Function Matrix(x, y)
Local temp := {}
Local fini := .F., Found 1:=.F.
Local r.rw.ii.i.j
Local multi :=0
Local total, leng
leng := len(x)
asize(temp.leng+1)
For i := 1 to leng + 1
     temp[i] := 0
Next
j:=1
For i := 1 to len(x[1])
     if x[i,j] = i
          11 ! found1
                multi := 1/x[i,j]
                Smultiple(x,y,i,multi)
          Endif
     Endif
     For R := 1 to len(x)
          If R !=i
                multi := If(x[R,i] <0, x[i,j] * -x[R,j], -x[i,j] * x[R,j])
                multiple(x,y,i,multi,temp)
                AddR(x,y,R,temp)
          Endif
```

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j + =1

Next

```
return Nil
```

temp[len(x[1])+1]:=y[r1]

For i: =1 to len(x[1])x[r1,i] :=x[r2,i]

Next

y[r1] := y[r2]

For i: =1 to len(x[1])x[r2,i] :=temp[i]Next

 $y[r2] := temp{len(x[1]) + 1}$

return nil

Local i

÷

```
For i: =1 to len(x[1])
temp[i] :=x[R,i] * multi
Next
```

temp[len(x[1])+1]:=y[R] * multi

Return temp

....

```
Function Smultiple(x,y,r,multi)
Local i, leng
leng := len(x[1])
For i := 1 to leng
   x[r,i] := x[r,i] * multi
Next
y[r] := y[r] * multi
return nil
Function AddR(x,y,r,temp)
Local i
For i = i to len(x[1])
   x(r,i) := x(r,i) + temp[i]
Next
y[r] := y[r] + temp[len(x[1]) + 1]
Return Nil
Function Checkpm(Pam)
Local returnval := t.
If VAL(Pam) <0 .and. VAL(pam) >5
   returnval := .f.
Endif
return returnval
```

```
Function Checkpmy(Pam)
Local returnval :=.t.
If VAL(Pam) <0 ...and. VAL(pam) >5
    returnval := .f.
Endif
Return returnval
Function changepm(pam)
Local retary := \{\}
Local dat, i.zero :=0
If valtype(pam) = "A"
   For i = 1 to len(pam)
       If pam[i] = 0
           zero + =1
       Else
         dat := pam[i]
           Do case
               case dat = 1
                   Aadd(retary.2)
               case dat =2
                   aadd(retary,8)
               case dat =3
                   aadd(retary.10)
               case dat =4
                   aadd(retary,11)
               case dat =5
                   aadd(retary,5)
           Endcase
       Endif
```

..

```
Asize(pam,0)
For i: =1 to len(retary)
Aadd(pam,retary[i])
Next
```

Endif

If Valtype(pam) = "N"

Do case

```
case pam = 1

pam := 2

case pam = 2

pam := 8

case pam = 3

pam := 10

case pam = 4

pam := 11

case pam = 5

pam := 5
```

Endcase

Endif

Return pam

1)	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	≓	=	=	=	=	=	=	==	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	==	=
Function Length(aa)																																								
11	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	æ	=	=	=	=	=	=	Ŧ	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	=	==	=

Local zero :=0

For i:=1 to len(aa)

```
If aa[i] =0
zero +=1
Endif
```

Next

Return zero